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THE IMPERIAL GAZETTEER OF INDIA.

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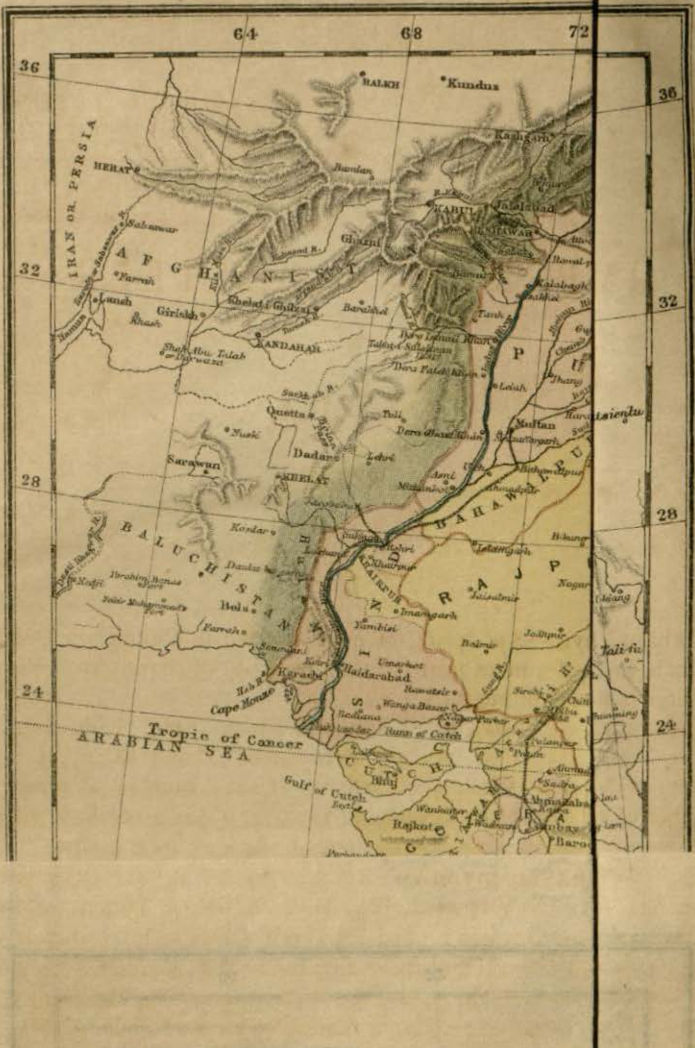
VOLUME VI.

LABANAKHYA TO MYSORE.

TRÜBNER & CO., LONDON, 1881.



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BALKH
Kundus
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IRAN OR PERSIA
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KANDAHAR
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Kalabagh
Tank
Dera Ismail Khan
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RAJPUTANA
Tropic of Cancer
ARABIAN SEA
Runn of Cutch
CUTCH
Bhuj
Gulf of Cutch
Rajkot
Wadhwan
Palanpur
Tali fu
Kotri
Jalindhar

IMPERIAL GAZETTEER

OF

INDIA.

VOLUME VI.

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Labanakhya.—Salt spring of great sanctity in Chittagong District, Bengal; situated 3 miles north of the sacred site of SITAKUND. Visited by large numbers of pilgrims.

Labdarya. — *Táluk* in Shikárpur District, Sind, lying between 27° 15′ and 27° 31′ N. lat., and between 68° 2′ and 68° 23′ E. long. Area, 207 square miles; pop. (1872), 31,201; number of *tapás*, 4; number of villages, 58. Revenue in 1873-74, £9214, of which £8450 was derived from imperial sources, and £764 from local funds.

La-bwot-khyan-myouk. — Revenue circle in the Shwe-loung township, Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated in the south of the delta of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), between the Pyeng-za-lú and Irawadi mouths of that river. The country is generally low and liable to inundation, and the circle is intersected by many tidal inlets. Pop. (1876), 4221, chiefly Karengs; gross revenue, £569.

La-bwot-khyan-toung (or *South La-bwot-khyan*).—Revenue circle in the Shwe-loung township, Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 4488, largely engaged in fishing; gross revenue, £2046. The circle is a network of tidal creeks.

La-bwot-kú-la. — Revenue circle in the Myoung-mya township, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Extensively cultivated, with only patches of waste land to the south; communication chiefly by water. Pop. (1876), 5390, engaged in rice cultivation, and in sea and river fishing; gross revenue, £1693.

La-bwot-kú-la.—Village in revenue circle of same name, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 1800.

Laccadive Islands (*Laksha Dwipa*—'The Hundred Thousand

Islands'; also called the *Divi* or *Amindivi* Islands).—A group of 14 islands off the west or Malabar coast of the Madras Presidency, lying between 10° and 14° N. lat., and between 71° 40′ and 74° E. long. Average distance from the mainland, 200 miles. There are 9 inhabited islands, 2 uninhabited, and 3 open reefs; total population in 1871, 13,495; number of houses, 2442. The northern portion of the group is attached to the Collectorate of South Kanara, the remainder belong to Alí Rájá of Cannanore, and form part of the administrative District of Malabar.

The following are the names of the islands:—

	Population.	Houses.
South Kanara Islands—		
Amini or Amindivi, ...	2189	424
Chetlat, ...	562	150
Kadamat, ...	208	35
Kiltan, ...	766	195
Bitra—uninhabited.	—	—
Cannanore Islands—		
Agathi, ...	1290	302
Kavarathi, ...	2016	400
Antrot, ...	2635	372
Kálpeni (*Kaluftee of Ibn Batuta*), . .	1029	127
Minikoi (Mínkat), ...	2800	437
Suheli—uninhabited.	—	—
Total, .	13,495	2442

The island of Minikoi more properly belongs to the Maldive group, and its inhabitants speak a different language from that (Malayálam) in use on the Laccadives proper.

Physical Aspects.—Each of the islands is situated on an extensive coral shoal, with an area of from 2 to 3 square miles. Their surface is flat, and no part of any of these formations rises more than 10 or 15 feet above the level of the sea. Around each island a more or less extensive fringe of coral reef extends, broader and more shelving on the west, where the island naturally most requires protection, and narrow and abrupt on the east. The outer edges are higher than the body of these shoals; and extending, as they do, in a semicircle at a distance of 500 yards to ¾ of a mile round the west, generally enclose a regularly formed lagoon, in which the water is so still that in the worst weather *coir*, or cocoa-nut fibre, may be soaked without danger of being washed away. The body of the island is the more perfect development of the eastern and protected side of the coral formation. The same feature characterises all these shoals, and leads to the theory that they rose to the surface in the form of circular or oval shallow basins, and that under the protection of the shoal the east rim gradually developed itself towards the centre and formed an island. This theory is strengthened by the fact, that on some of the islands this gradual increase towards the lagoon is still going on. The receding tide leaves

the outer edge of the reef nearly dry, and the tide water passes out of the lagoon by two or three breaches in the outer rim, which are sufficiently large to admit the light native craft into the natural harbour, several feet deep even at low tide, formed by the lagoon.

Under the surface of all these islands lies a stratum of coral or limestone which, varying from 1 foot to 1½ foot in thickness, is seemingly above the highest level of the water, and, being of a piece with the whole formation, stretches uniformly throughout the portion of the shoal which is above sea-level. Beneath this crust is loose wet sand; and by breaking the crust and removing a few spadesful of sand, to allow the water to accumulate, a pool of fresh water may be obtained in any part. All wells, tanks, and pits for soaking cocoa-nut fibre or *coir* (where soaked in fresh water) are thus made. The sand gradually presses towards this excavation, and from its constant removal some of the wells and tanks extend under the vault of coral for some distance all round. The water in these wells is quite fresh, and always abundant; but it is affected by the tide, rises and falls several inches, and is said to be not very wholesome. Above the crust the soil lies to a depth varying from 2 to 6 feet, generally composed of light coral sand, which is finer than common sea sand, but quite as dry. In some parts the soil is entirely made up of small loose pieces of coral without any other soil, a condition which is said to be particularly well adapted to the cocoa-nut. The surface soil is naturally so barren that there is little or no spontaneous vegetation in most of the islands; and although during the monsoon some small crops of coarse dry grains are produced, their scantiness shows that the prosperity of the islands must ever depend on the cocoa-nut. 'Being so low,' writes Commander Taylor in his *Sailing Directions*, 'with cocoa-nut trees only 50 or 60 feet above the sea, these islands are not discernible at any distance, and therefore are commonly and prudently avoided by navigators; but amongst them there are safe and wide channels through which a ship may extricate herself if, by any error in reckoning or otherwise, she gets among them.'

There are but few animals of any kind. Rats are unfortunately numerous, and prove very destructive to the cocoa-nut plantations. Tortoises are common, and fish is abundant.

History, Administration, etc.—For two and a half centuries, the Laccadive Islands formed part of the small principality of Cannanore, having been conferred as *jágír* on that family by the Cherakál Rájá (about A.D. 1550). The island of Minikoi was a more recent acquisition from the Sultán of the Maldives. In 1786, the northern islanders revolted, and transferred their allegiance to Mysore. In 1799, when Kanara fell to the East India Company, these islands were not restored to the Bíbí of Cannanore, but a remission of revenue (£525) was conceded instead; hence the different status of the two portions of the group.

From 1855 to 1860, the southern islands were sequestrated for arrears of revenue. This has again happened (1877), and they are at present directly administered by the Collector of Malabar, to the unqualified satisfaction of the inhabitants. Such revenue as is derived from the Laccadive Islands has for more than a century been obtained by a monopoly of the staple produce of the group—*coir*. The entire out-turn is claimed by the Government as respects the northern portion of the group, and by Alí Rájá as respects the islands which still remain under native management. The article is paid for to the producers at fixed prices, and is sold on the coast at the market rates; the difference constitutes the revenue or profits of trade of the Government and Alí Rájá respectively. The latter pays a fixed tribute or *peshkash* of Rs. 10,000 (say £1000) to the Government on account of the islands which he manages. No change has been made for many years in the price which is given by Government for the *coir* produced in the islands attached to Kanara. Payment is made partly in rice and partly in money; and as the price is fairly equitable as compared with the average rates which could be obtained on the coast by the producers, the arrangement is still popular with the northern islanders. On the southern islands, on the contrary, the price has been constantly changed by the native chief, and so reduced as to produce discontent and evasion of the monopoly; other monopolies (cocoa-nut, cowries, tortoiseshell, and the like) and imposts have been exacted or maintained, and entire alienation between Alí Rájá and the inhabitants has existed for years. In Minikoi, which is the personal property (*jenmum*) of Alí Rájá, and is geographically the most isolated of the group, a more profitable arrangement for the tenantry exists, and few, if any, monopolies are enforced. Comparative contentment and loyalty consequently exist here. In 1847, the group was devastated by a hurricane. Numerous wrecks of large vessels have occurred on the reefs, and on more than one occasion the inhabitants have been hard pressed for food owing to stress of weather. The Kanara Islands are managed by a Sub-Magistrate and *munsif;* and the Cannanore group by *amíns* (revenue agents). The islands are from time to time visited by a European officer. The people are of a peaceable disposition, with no little aptitude for self-government, and their disputes are generally settled by their own head-men according to local custom.

Population.—The entire population numbers (1871) 13,495, of whom 3725 are in the Government islands. The people are all Musalmáns, and, like the Moplás of the neighbouring coast, of Hindu descent. 'A tradition is preserved among them, that their forefathers formed a part of an expedition from Malayála which set out for Mecca in search of their apostate king Bharman Perumal, and was wrecked on these islands. The inhabitants certainly remained Hindus long after their first settlement, and were probably converted to Islám not more than

250 or 300 years back. They retain some of the general distinctions of caste, as well as the law of succession in the female line, with certain local modifications. This law is still strictly adhered to on the island of Amindivi, where distinctions of caste and a more numerous population have been obstacles to the gradual change, by which the custom of regular paternal descent is supplanting the local law of Malabar, on the islands of Kadamat, Kiltan, and Chetlat of the Kanara portion of the group; in the southern islands, still under native management, the old custom is more rigidly observed.'—(Robinson.)

The proportion of females in the population is unusually large. There are, for the whole group, 111·15 females to every 100 males; and in some islands this disproportion is still more marked; thus in Minikoi the excess rises as high as 26·2 per cent. The general disparity is due partly to the emigration of the male population to the mainland for employment, and partly to accidental causes. More than one-sixth of the adult male population of Minikoi perished in a cyclone in 1867.

Customs, Language, etc.—Monogamy is universal, and the women appear in public freely, with their heads uncovered; in Minikoi, they take the lead in almost everything except navigation. The language of the Laccadive group is Malayálam, which is, however, written in the Arabic character; that of Minikoi is Mahl with a mixture of corrupt Malayálam. The head-men and pilots of most of the islands know a little Arabic; and the male inhabitants can generally both read and write. The inhabitants are bold seamen and expert boat-builders. They own 184 large and 719 small boats, navigating them by European instruments, with the use of which they are familiar. The chief and almost sole cultivation is that of the cocoa-nut palm; the chief and almost sole industry, the preparation and exportation of cocoa-nut fibre (*coir*). The soaking of *coir* and the other processes connected therewith are almost entirely conducted by the women. The men convey the produce, *coir*, cocoa-nuts, jaggery, copra, *vendia* (a sweetmeat), besides tortoiseshell and cowries, to the mainland; from the northern islands to Mangalore; from the southern islands to the Malabar ports and Ceylon, the Maldives, and Calcutta. The annual value of the total exports is about £17,000.

Medical Aspects.—The climate is healthy. Cholera has once visited Kalpeni, and formerly small-pox was the most dreaded disease of the islands. The practice, however, of both vaccination and inoculation has greatly reduced the mortality from this cause. Leprosy prevails; but the islanders have traditional sanitary laws, such as separate burial-grounds for small-pox and cholera deaths, and are otherwise careful in their habits. Cyclones, travelling up the Malabar coast, for a time submerge some of these islands; notably the storm of April 1847, which destroyed above 1000 people. As already stated, more than one-

sixth of the adult male population of Minikoi perished in a cyclone in 1867.

Ladákh.—In its restricted but more correct sense, the name of Ladákh is applicable only to one of the three outlying Governorships under the Mahárájá of Kashmír (Cashmere),—the other two being Baltistán and Gilgit. It is of extremely irregular outline, but, speaking broadly, it may be described as comprising the valley of the Indus, and also of most of its tributaries, from 32° to 35° N. lat., and from 75° 29′ to 79° 29′ E. long. The different Districts of Central Ladákh, Rúpshu, and Nubra, besides the bleak and almost uninhabited plateaux of the Kuen-lun and Linzhithang plains, together make up the Province. The area of Ladákh is estimated by General Cunningham at about 30,000 square miles; but this includes Zanskar, and some other Districts which do not belong to it in a political sense. Mr. F. Drew is the most recent authority on Ladákh; his return of the population, as ascertained by the Census of 1873, is 20,621; the 168,000 given by Cunningham, the 165,000 of Moorcroft (1822), and the estimate of 200,000 furnished by Dr. Bellew in 1873, of course apply to the more extended area. Lying as it does at the back of the great central range of the Himálayas, it may be readily understood that Ladákh is one of the loftiest of the inhabited regions of the globe. The valleys and plateaux vary between 9000 and 17,000 feet, while many of the peaks attain altitudes of 25,000 feet. The chief rivers of Ladákh are the Indus, and its tributaries the Shayok, Nubra, Chanchengmo, and Zanskar. There are several salt lakes, the more important of which are the Pang Kong and Cho-moriri. The climate is characterized by remarkable extremes, burning heat during the day being succeeded by piercing cold at night, while vegetation is parched by the excessive dryness of the air. The general aspect of the country is that of a somewhat complicated series of gigantic mountains, many of which rise to the limit of perpetual snow, interspersed with occasional valleys and deep ravines, where a few acres of ground available for cultivation are usually to be found. These support a few cereals, fruit-trees, poplars, and willows. The slopes of the mountains and the lofty tablelands in the north-east of the Province are, with the exception of occasional forest growth, almost destitute of vegetation. The wild animals comprise the *kiang* or wild ass, sheep, goat, marmot, and hare; snow-pheasant, red-legged partridge, eagle, and water-fowl; while the principal domestic animals are ponies, asses, oxen, sheep, goats, and dogs. The sheep are most useful, as nearly the whole of the traffic of the country is transported on their backs. General Cunningham relates that in one day he saw as many as from five to six thousand sheep laden with shawl and common wool, borax, sulphur, and dried apricots, all making their way to the hill Provinces on the south-west. The common domestic goat of Ladákh is the well-known shawl goat, the wool of which is exported

to Kashmír, Nepál, and British India. In 1853, General Cunningham estimated the amount of wool produced in Ladákh at about 2400 *maunds*. The foreign trade of the country in home produce is confined to four articles, viz., wool, borax, sulphur, and dried fruits. The total value of this trade was estimated by Cunningham at £8000. But the fact of Leh being an important entrepôt for trade between Kashmír and Hindustán on the south, and Yarkand, Khotan, and Thibet on the north and east, has probably contributed more to the wealth of the country. The chief imports from Chinese territories are wool (sheep and goats), tea, gold dust and coins, silver, silk, and *bhang* (an intoxicating preparation of hemp); while those from India consist of cotton goods, hides, skins and leathers, grain, guns, pistols, etc., brocades, and tea.

In 1877, the foreign imports and exports into Leh were valued at £112,817 and £89,618 respectively, while the local imports and exports amounted together to £3573. The intermediate position of Rúpshu has induced many travelling merchants to come that way, the two chief routes from thence into British India being over the Bará Lacha and Parang Passes to Lahúl and Simla respectively. The Lhasa tea merchants pass through Rúpshu on their way to Leh, with their ventures of brick-tea.

The Ladákhis are a short, strong, but ugly race of Turanian origin, and Buddhists in religion. They are a settled and cultivating people, living in villages, which vary from 9500 to 13,500 feet above the sea. They are cheerful, willing, and not quarrelsome, unless excited by their intoxicating drink, *chang;* simplicity and clumsiness are in a measure their chief characteristics. On the other hand, authorities agree in remarking that the Ladákhis far excel the Indian *munshis* in one point, *i.e.*, the understanding of a map. The man's dress is a wide and long woollen coat (*choga*), confined at the waist by a woollen *kamarband* or scarf, thick boots, and felt gaiters. The women wear a gown, the skirt gathered into plaits, a sort of sheepskin shawl over the shoulders, and for head-dress a strip of cloth ornamented with shells or rough turquoises. The shoes are the same for both sexes, and the dress of neither varies with the season of the year. Almost all the Ladákhis are engaged in agriculture, and the area cultivated by one family is from 2 to 4 acres. The grain which is most prolific, and which is sown to the greatest extent, is a loose-grained and hardy barley; besides this, wheat, peas, and common barley grow at lesser altitudes. The food is generally barley-meal made into a porridge, or else into a sort of dough with butter-milk; *chang* (a light beer) and tea among the better-to-do classes are the usual drinks. They are very dirty in person, but extremely hardy, and carry great weights with facility and endurance. The women have much social liberty, and do a large share of the manual labour. Except among the few richer people, polyandry, or

plurality of husbands, is quite general; the practice having no doubt arisen from the limited extent of cultivable land, and the general inelasticity of the country's resources.

In nearly every village there is a monastery, which sometimes holds but one or two Lamas or monks, sometimes hundreds. These monasteries are, as a rule, conspicuously built on a spur of the mountain or isolated rock, and always somewhat apart from the village itself. The supply of priests is kept up by one boy in each family being usually devoted to the profession. The religious tone of the inhabitants is further exemplified by colossal figures of deities carved in the rock, stone-heaps or walls covered with inscriptions, and miscellaneous sacred structures.

The earliest mention of Ladákh is probably to be found in the description of *Kie-chha* by the Chinese pilgrim Fa-Hian (300 A.D.). It appears to be referred to again in the *Akhassa Regio* of Pliny, and in the *Mo-lo-pho* or *San-pho-lo* of Hiouen Thsang (middle of the 7th century). Originally it formed one of the Provinces of Thibet, governed as to temporal matters by an independent prince, and in spiritual affairs by the Grand Lama of Lhasa. In the 10th century, when the empire of Great Thibet was finally broken up, several of the outlying Districts were erected into independent kingdoms, and Palgyi-Gon occupied Ladákh. At the beginning of the 17th century, all the records of the temples and monasteries were destroyed by Alí Sher, chief of Skardu, which has occasioned a deplorable gap in the history of the country. The dominion of Ladákh was much enlarged by Siunge Namgyal, who defeated the chief of Balti, although aided by Jahángír Sháh. A series of wars between the Sokpos and Ladákhis ensued, but eventually in 1688 the Sokpos were driven out of Ladákh with the assistance of the Muhammadans from Kashmír, and received Rudokh as a concession. The Rájá of Ladákh then became a Muhammadan, and from that time Ladákh appears to have paid tribute to Kashmír. About the time of Moorcroft's visit to Ladákh, in 1822, the Gyalpo, or ruler, made an offer of his allegiance to the British Government, which, unfortunately for the prosperity of Ladákh, was refused. In 1834, Ladákh was invaded by the Dogra troops of Ghuláb Sinh, ruler of Kashmír, under the leadership of Zoráwar Sinh, and, with the neighbouring Province of Balti, was conquered after two campaigns. Elated at these successes, the same commander invaded Rudokh, but here the combined power of the Chinese and the piercing cold led to the practical annihilation of his army, in the very same month of the same year that a British division of about equal strength was destroyed in Afghánistán. By a treaty of the 16th March 1846, Kashmír and its dependencies were handed over to Ghuláb Sinh by the British Government, to whom they had passed on the conquest of the Punjab.

In 1867, Dr. Cayley was specially deputed to Ladákh, to report on

the trade; and in 1870, a treaty was concluded between Lord Mayo and the Mahárájá of Kashmír, providing for the appointment of two Joint Commissioners, one British and one native, for supervising the through trade; since which date annual reports on the subject have been duly submitted. Very full information will also be found in Dr. Aitchison's *Trade Products of Leh* (1874).

Ládwa.—Municipal town in Umballa (Ambálá) District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 4289. Lies in lat. 29° 59′ 30″ N., and long. 77° 5′ E., on the road from Pihoia to Jagádhri. Formerly the capital of a small native State, confiscated in 1846. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £274, or 1s. 4d. per head of population (4121) within municipal limits.

La-gwon-beng. — Revenue circle in the Hpoung-leng township, Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Towards the south the country is undulating with rice cultivation and open wastes; in the north are low laterite ridges covered with bamboo and tree forest. Pop. (1877), 3074; gross revenue, £1629.

Lahár.—Fortified town in Gwalior State, Central India; situated in lat. 26° 11′ 50″ N., and long. 78° 59′ 5″ E., 6 miles east of the right or east bank of the river Sind; 50 miles east of Gwalior fort, and 85 south-east of Agra. Lahár is chiefly noteworthy as the scene of a memorable and desperate assault by a British force in 1780. 'Captain Popham, in command of 2400 infantry, a small body of cavalry, and a detail of European artillery, with a howitzer and a few field-pieces, besieged this fort, which was found to be much stronger than had been fallaciously represented by the Ráná of Gohad, who was anxious to have it captured from the Marhattás. It was imperfectly breached; and as the light field-pieces could produce no further effect on the defences, the British commander determined to make a desperate attempt at storming. By extraordinary efforts, a lodgment was made in the place. Dreadful slaughter ensued on both sides. The enemy defended themselves with desperation; and it was not until the garrison, which had consisted of 500 men, was reduced to their *kiládár* and a few of his dependants, that quarter was demanded. The British lost 125 men.'

Láharpur.—*Parganá* in Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Kheri District; on the east and south by *parganás* Biswán and Tambaur; and on the west by *parganás* Hargám and Khairábád. Principal mart, Kesriganj, 2 miles west of Láharpur town. The *parganá* is divided into two portions by a ridge of land from 10 to 30 feet in height, the lands to the north of which are known as *tarái*, the soil being a stiff *matiár;* while to the south the soil is a fine *domát.* Pop. (1869), 84,730, viz. 65,544 Hindus and 19,186 Muhammadans. Area, 181 square miles, or 122,730 acres, of which 85,179 acres are cultivated, 19,438 cultivable, 976 revenue-free (*muáfi*), and 17,137 uncultivable and waste. Incidence of land tax, 1s. 10¾d. per acre of total area; 2s. 2¾d.

per acre of assessed area, or 2s. 10⅛d. per acre of cultivated area. The *parganá* was formed by Rájá Todar Mall in the reign of Akbar, out of the lands of 13 *tappás*, containing 765 villages. It now contains 176 villages, held under the following tenures:—*Tálukdárí*, 104, and *zamíndárí*, 72. The principal castes among the landed proprietors are Gaur and Janwár Kshattriyas, the former holding 105 villages and the latter 13. The Gaurs are descendants of Rájá Chandra Sen, who invaded Sítápur during the anarchy which ensued on the death of the Emperor Aurangzeb in 1707 A.D. The Janwárs are known as Saindurias, from their original village of Saindur in *parganá* Kursi, whence they came into Láharpur before the invasion of the Gaurs. In addition to the 13 villages which they hold direct from the State, they also possess several villages in sub-settlement.

Láharpur.—Principal town in Láharpur *parganá*, Sitápur District, Oudh; situated 17 miles north of Sítápur town, on a road leading to Mallapur on the Gogra. Lat. 27° 42′ 45″ N., long. 80° 56′ 25″ E. A town of considerable extent, having a population in 1869 of 10,890, divided almost equally between Hindus and Muhammadans. It contains 1590 mud huts and 104 masonry buildings, the number of the latter steadily increasing, the banker caste being the principal builders. The public buildings consist of the usual police post and registry offices, with a school, attended by 224 scholars and a *sarái.* Thirteen mosques, 4 Musalmán tombs, 4 Hindu and 2 Síkh temples. Good daily *bázárs*, the sales at which amount to about £4000 per annum. No manufactures. Large fair held in the month of Rabi-us-sani; and the *Muharram* festival is celebrated with great splendour. The town was originally founded by, and named after, the Emperor Firoz Tughlak in 1370 A.D., when on his way to the shrine of Sayyid Sálár Masáúd at Bahráich. Thirty years afterwards, one Lahári, a Pási, took possession of it, and changed its name to Láharpur. The Pásis were exterminated in 1418 by a Muhammadan army from Kanauj, under one Shaikh Táhír Ghází. Subsequently the Muhammadans were ousted in 1707 by the Gaur Kshattriyas, who still possess most of the land in the *parganá.*

Láhaul.—Valley in Kángra, Punjab.—*See* LAHUL.

Lahore.—A Division (under a Commissioner) in the Punjab, lying between 30° 8′ and 32° 33′ N. lat., and between 73° 11′ 30″ and 75° 27′ E. long., and comprising the three Districts of LAHORE, FIROZPUR, and GUJRANWALA, each of which see separately. Area (Parliamentary Abstract, 1878), 8961 square miles; pop. (1868), 1,889,495.

Lahore.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 30° 37′ and 31° 54′ N. lat., and between 73° 40′ 15″ and 75° 1′ E. long. Area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1878, 3659 square miles; population in 1868, 789,666. Lahore forms the central District of the Division of the same name. It is

bounded on the north-west by Gujránwála; on the north-east by Amritsar; on the south-east by the river Sutlej (Satlaj); and on the south-west by Montgomery District. The administrative headquarters are at LAHORE CITY, the capital of the Punjab.

Physical Aspects.—Lahore District comprises an irregular square of territory, stretching from the Sutlej (Satlaj) to the Rávi, and extending beyond the latter river far into the heart of the Rechna Doáb. Its surface, though mainly level, like the remainder of the Punjab plain, consists of parallel belts, having various degrees of fertility, which follow the general direction of the rivers Sutlej, Rávi, and Degh. The valleys of these three principal streams, with their intervening dorsal ridges, demarcate the country into several well-recognised tracts. Between the Sutlej and the Rávi stretches an upland region, known as the Mánjha, the original home of the Síkhs, growing more and more barren as it trends southwards, till it becomes at last a mere desert plateau, interspersed with low bushes and rank grass. Villages only occur at rare intervals; but ruins of tanks, wells, towns, and forts prove that this desolate upland once formed the seat of a flourishing monarchy. A high bank, running due east and west from the Sutlej, bounds the Mánjha to the south; and between this bank and the river lies a fertile triangular wedge of lowland, known as the Hítár. The Rávi has only a small fringe of fruitful alluvium, beyond which a tract of jungle runs north-westward to the Degh. The Rávi traverses the District throughout its whole length, passing within a mile of Lahore city, and dividing in places into numerous branches, which re-unite after short courses. The Beas (Biás) and the Sutlej, which now meet just above the boundary of the District, once flowed in separate channels till they fell into the Indus; and the old bed of the Beas may still be distinctly traced close to the high bank of the Mánjha. According to the villagers, the change took place about the year 1750, in consequence of the curse of a Síkh Guru, whose hermitage the irreverent river had destroyed. The towns of Kasúr and Chunián, besides many large villages, stand upon the edge of the ancient bank. Several important irrigation works fertilize the land throughout the District. The BARI DOAB CANAL runs down the high backbone between the Sutlej and the Rávi; the Hasli channel, constructed by Alí Mardan Khán, the famous engineer of Sháh Jahán, which formerly provided water for the gardens and fountains at Shalimár, near Lahore, now feeds the same useful work; while three inundation cuts from the Sutlej, known as the Katora, Khánwah, and Sohág, spread fertility over the triangular belt between the Mánjha bank and the river. Government has reserved several large tracts of waste land as fuel plantations for the railway, or grazing places for the horses employed by the military authorities. Wolves infest the wilder portions of the Mánjha and the trans-Rávi tract, and as many as 88 have been killed in a single year.

History.—The numerous ruins of cities and wells scattered over the now almost uninhabitable portions of the District, show that at some early period the general level of water must have stood much higher than now, and so permitted the existence of a comparatively high civilisation. Few traces, however, can be recovered of this pre-historic age; and the annals of the District coincide in the main with those of the great city from which it takes its name. Situated on the high road from Afghánistán, Lahore has been visited by every western invader from the days of Alexander onward. It long formed the centre of a confederation which repelled the advancing tide of Islám; it next became the capital of the Ghazní dynasty, and, at a later period, stood for a short time as the metropolis of the Mughals; while in modern times it has seen the rise of Ranjít Sinh, and finally settled down into the administrative centre of a British Province. At the time of Alexander's invasion, it was probably a place of little importance; but in the 7th century, Hiouen Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, mentions it as a great Bráhmanical city, which he passed on his way to Jalandhar (Jullundur). At the period of the first Muhammadan invasion, towards the end of the same century, Lahore was ruled by a Chauhán prince of the Ajmere (Ajmír) family. For three hundred years longer, the native Rájás held their own against all Musalmán attacks; but towards the end of the 10th century, Sabuktagín, Sultán of Ghazní, 'like a foaming torrent, hastened toward Hindustán,' and defeated Jái Pál of Lahore, who burnt himself to death in despair. Shortly after, the more famous Mahmúd of Ghazní invaded India, defeated Anang Pál, son of Jái Pál, at Pesháwar, and after pushing his conquests farther into Hindustán, returned thirteen years later to conquer Lahore, which remained thenceforth in the hands of one or other Muhammadan dynasty until the Síkh reaction. During the reigns of the first eight Ghazní princes, Lahore was governed by viceroys; but about the year 1102, the Seljuks drove the Ghazní Sultán to India, and Lahore then became the capital of their race. It remained the capital of the Musalmán Empire till Muhammad Ghori transferred the metropolis to Delhi in 1160. Under the Khiljí and Tughlak dynasties, Lahore makes little figure in history. In 1397, when Timúr invaded India, it fell before one of his lieutenants; but the fact that the Mughal conqueror did not himself sack it in person, shows that it must then have sunk into comparative insignificance. In 1436, Bahlol Lodi, afterwards Emperor, seized upon Lahore, as a first step to power. Under his grandson Sultán Ibráhim, Daulat Khán, the Afghán Governor of Lahore, revolted, and called in the aid of Bábar, who marched upon the city in 1524. Ibráhim's army met him near Lahore; but Bábar defeated them with ease, and gave over the city to be plundered. In 1526, Bábar once more invaded India; and after the decisive battle of Pánipat, took possession of Delhi, and laid the foundation of the Mughal Empire.

Under that magnificent dynasty, Lahore remained at all times more or less of a royal residence, and still retains many splendid memorials of its imperial inhabitants (*see* LAHORE CITY). Nádir Sháh passed through almost unresisted on his way to overturn the Mughal power in 1738; and the success of his invasion gave a fresh impetus to the rising enthusiasm of the Síkhs, whose tenets had been slowly spreading through the Punjab ever since the days of Nának. In 1748, Ahmad Sháh Duráni took Lahore; and a period of perpetual invasion, pillage, and depopulation set in, which lasted up to the establishment of Ranjít Sinh's rule. During the thirty years which followed Ahmad Sháh's final departure in 1767, the Sikhs remained practically unmolested, and Lahore District fell into the hands of three among their chieftains, belonging to the Bhangi *misl* or confederacy. In 1799, Ranjít Sinh took his first step toward the sovereignty of the Punjab by obtaining a grant of Lahore from the Afghán invader, Sháh Zamán. His subsequent rise to mastery over the whole Province, and the collapse of his artificial kingdom under his successors, form a chapter of imperial history (*see* PUNJAB). In December 1846, the Council of Regency was established, and the British Resident became the real central authority at Lahore. On 29th March 1849, the young Mahárájá Dhulíp Sinh resigned the government to the British, and the District has ever since been constituted upon the usual administrative model.

Population.—The Census of 1855 returned the population of Lahore District at 591,683. That of 1868 showed an increase to the total of 789,666; but a large part of the difference must be attributed to territorial changes. Making allowance for the villages since annexed, the real increase may be set down at 83,530, or 12·8 per cent. The enumeration of 1868 extended over an area of 3624 square miles, and disclosed a population of 789,666 persons, distributed among 1455 villages or townships, and inhabiting 175,227 houses. From these data, the following averages may be deduced:—Persons per square mile, 217·89; villages per square mile, 0·40; houses per square mile, 48·35; persons per village, 542; persons per house, 4·51. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 438,331; females, 351,335; proportion of males, 55·51 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—149,431 boys; 128,407 girls; total children, 277,838, or 35·18 per cent. of the population. As regards religious distinctions, the Muhammadans rank numerically first with 470,216, or 59·54 per cent.; the Síkhs muster unusually strong with 119,268, or 15·10 per cent.; the Hindus number 116,287, or 14·73 per cent.; while the miscellaneous heading of 'others' embraces 83,895, or 10·62 per cent. Among the ethnical divisions, the Játs come first (136,407), and form the leading agricultural community. More than half of them retain the ancestral creed of their Hindu forefathers; the remainder have embraced Islám. The other principal tribes include—34,034 Kshattriyas, 27,959

Aroras, 22,442 Bhattis, 18,015 Bráhmans, 15,783 Rájputs, 10,808 Kashmírís, 10,051 Khojahs, 9487 Patháns, 9267 Labánas, 7250 Gújars, and 6055 Kambohs. The District in 1868 contained 8 towns with a population exceeding 5000—namely, LAHORE (city, civil station, and *sadr bázár*), 98,924; MEEAN MEER (Mián Mír) (cantonment), 13,757; MUZANG and ICHRA (suburbs of Lahore), 5327 and 7355 respectively; KASUR, 15,209; CHUNIAN, 7355; PATTI, 6718; and KHEM KARN, 5847. The language in common use is Panjábí.

Agriculture.—Out of a total area of 2,334,225 acres, 985,888 acres are under cultivation. Of these, 411,331 acres are artificially irrigated, 77,863 acres being supplied from Government works. Wheat forms the staple agricultural product, covering 310,459 acres. Gram, *joár*, *moth*, and barley also occupy considerable areas. Cotton ranks as the chief commercial crop, grown in the lowlands of Chunián and Kasúr, between the old bed of the Beas (Biás) and the Sutlej (Satlaj). It is, however, of inferior quality, and is mainly employed for home consumption. Rice grows on the banks of the Degh, and elsewhere if an abundant water supply can be ensured. The great crop of the District is the *rabí* or spring harvest, in which wheat, the staple food of the people, and the other chief grains, are produced. The *kharíf* or autumn harvest is mainly devoted to the poorer pulses, and fodder for cattle. The use of manure hardly extends beyond the lands immediately adjacent to the villages. Round the city of Lahore, however, it is employed with great effect, as many as three crops being sometimes taken from the same field within the year. The village tenures fall under the three ordinary Punjab types, but that known as *pattidárí* prevails in a large majority of cases. The peasant proprietors in most instances cultivate their own lands. Cash rents hardly exist, and rentals altogether depend, not upon free competition, but upon custom and the caste of the tenant. On unirrigated land, half or one-third of the gross produce forms the average rate; on irrigated land, one-fourth may be regarded as a fair proportion. Prices of food grains ruled as follows in 1873:—Wheat, 21 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 4d. per cwt.; barley, 35 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 2d. per cwt.; gram, 23 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 10d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 27 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 2d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Famines, due to drought, occurred before the British occupation in 1759, 1783, 1813, and 1833. Since the British assumed administration, the greatest scarcities have taken place in 1860 and 1867; but Lahore District suffered comparatively little, except from the exportation of its food-stuffs to other quarters. Grain rose to 7 *sers* per rupee, or 16s. per cwt. Poorhouses and famine relief works were set on foot, but they proved useful chiefly to the starving refugees from Málwá, Hissár, and the East. The construction of the Bári Doáb Canal will probably serve in future to protect the naturally fertile

uplands of Lahore from drought. Hail-storms, locusts, and rats sometimes cause considerable damage to the standing crops.

Commerce, Trade, etc.—The trade of the District centres mainly in the city of LAHORE. The chief manufactures comprise silk, cotton, wool, and metal-work, none of them of more than local importance. The agricultural produce does not suffice for home consumption, and large quantities of grain are imported to supply the city. The main line of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway terminates at Lahore, and has stations at Meean Meer and Jallo. A branch line (a section of the Indus Valley Railway) runs to Shersháh on the Chenáb, below Multán (Mooltan), recently continued to Karáchi (Kurrachee) and the sea. On the other side, the unfinished Northern Punjab State Railway leads towards Pesháwar and the north-west frontier. The Grand Trunk Road enters the District from the east, crosses the Rávi and the Sutlej by bridges of boats, and from Lahore turns nearly due north towards Pesháwar. Other roads connect the capital with surrounding cities and with the lesser towns of the District. Lines of telegraph run to Umballa (Ambála), Pesháwar, and Multán (Mooltan), besides the railway wires, which last are also open to the public.

Administration.—The District staff ordinarily comprises a Deputy Commissioner, with 2 Assistant and 3 extra-Assistant Commissioners, besides the usual fiscal, constabulary, and medical officers. In 1872-73, 13 civil and revenue judges and 23 magistrates dispensed justice. The imperial revenue in the same year amounted to £95,285, of which sum £61,031, or nearly two-thirds, was contributed by the land tax. In 1872, the regular police force numbered 843 officers and men, supplemented by a municipal constabulary of 453 men, and a cantonment police of 70 men at Meean Meer (Mián Mír), besides 25 constables supplied to private companies. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property amounted to 1391 policemen, being at the rate of 1 man to every 565 of the population and every 2·62 square miles of area. The total number of persons brought to trial for all offences committed within the District in 1872 was 6409. The central jail at Lahore serves both as a District prison and as a receiving jail for long-term convicts from other parts of the Province. In 1872, it contained a daily average of 2203 prisoners. During the same year, the female penitentiary, also a Provincial prison, had a daily average of 159 inmates. Besides the Punjab University College, the Lahore Government College, the Normal School, and 4 schools for European children, education was carried on in the District in 1872-73 by 378 aided and unaided schools, having a joint roll of 9277 pupils, and maintained at a cost of £6724. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is divided into 4 *tahsíls.* In 1875-76, it contained 7 municipal towns, namely, Lahore, Kasúr, Khem Karn, Chunián, Sharakpur, Patti, and Khudián. Their aggregate revenue amounted to

£19,001, or 2s. 2⅜d. per head of the total population (171,917) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The District bears a good reputation for general healthiness, though the heat for four or five months reaches an excessive intensity, the thermometer often ranging as high as 105° F. In 1872, the recorded temperature in the shade was as follows for three selected months:—May, maximum 120° F., minimum 51°, mean 88°; July, maximum 114°, minimum 65°, mean 86°; December, maximum 77°, minimum 34°, mean 56° F. The rainfall amounted to 17 inches in 1866-67, 25 inches in 1867-68, 14 inches in 1868-69, 16 inches in 1869-70, 10 inches in 1870-71, and 10 inches in 1871-72. These figures show an unusually arid climate, even for the plains of India. September and October form the unhealthiest season of the year; and the valleys of the two great rivers are centres of endemic disease, especially fever. The vital statistics of 1872 show a total number of 27,610 recorded deaths, being at the rate of 36 per thousand. Of these, 19,355, or nearly 25 per thousand, were due to fever alone. The District contains 3 Government charitable dispensaries—at the Mayo Hospital in Lahore, at Kasúr, and at Meean Meer (Mián Mír). In 1872, they gave relief to a total of 43,108 persons, of whom 2221 were in-patients.

Lahore.—*Tahsíl* of Lahore District, Punjab; occupying the north-eastern corner of the Bári Doáb portion of the District, and lying between 31° 13′ 30″ and 31° 44′ N. lat., and between 74° 2′ 45″ and 74° 42′ E. long. Area, 739 square miles; pop. (1868), 306,832; density, 415·2 per square mile.

Lahore. — Municipal city, capital of the Punjab Province, and administrative headquarters of Lahore District. Lat. 31° 34′ 5″ N., long. 74° 21′ E. Population in 1868, 98,924, consisting of 33,687 Hindus, 57,574 Muhammadans, 2573 Sikhs, and 5090 'others;' or, including the suburbs of Muzang and Ichra, a total of 111,596. A later municipal Census in 1876 disclosed the total population of Lahore and its suburbs at 128,441 (Parliamentary Abstract, 1878). Situated 1 mile south of the river Rávi, amid the debris and ruins of the ancient city, whose area the modern town does not nearly cover.

History and Architectural Remains.—Hindu tradition traces the origin of Lahore to Ráma, the hero of the *Rámáyana*, whose two sons, Loh and Kash, founded the sister towns of Lahore and Kasúr. The name has probably been corrupted from Lohâwar, or from a still earlier Sanskrit form, Lohâwarána. Though little can now be recovered with regard to the date of its foundation, the absence of all mention in Alexander's historians, and the fact that coins of the Græco-Bactrian kingdom are not found among the ruins, lead to the belief that Lahore did not exist as a town of any importance during the earliest period of Indian history. On the other hand, Hiouen Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist

pilgrim, notices the city in his *Itinerary;* and it seems probable, therefore, that Lahore first rose into eminence between the 1st and 7th centuries of our era. Its condition under the native Hindu and early Musalmán dynasties belongs rather to the general annals of LAHORE DISTRICT. Governed originally by a family of Chauhán Rájputs, a branch of the house of Ajmere (Ajmír), Lahore fell successively under the dominion of the Ghazní and Ghori Sultáns, who made it the capital of their Indian conquests, and adorned it with numerous buildings, almost all now in ruins. But it was under the Mughal Empire that Lahore reached its greatest size and magnificence. The reigns of Humáyun, Akbar, Jahángír, Sháh Jahán, and Aurangzeb, form the golden period in the annals and architecture of the city. Akbar enlarged and repaired the fort, and surrounded the town with a wall, portions of which still remain, built into the modern work of Ranjít Sinh. Specimens of the mixed Hindu and Saracenic style adopted by Akbar survive within the fort, though largely defaced by later alterations. Under that great Emperor, Lahore rapidly increased in area and population. The most thickly inhabited portion covered the site of the existing town, but long *bázárs* and populous suburbs spread over the now desolate tract without the walls. Jahángír also frequently resided at Lahore, and it was here that his son Khusru rebelled against him. During his reign, the Síkh Guru, Arjún Mall, compiler of the *Adi Granth*, died in prison at Lahore; and the humble shrine of the first Síkh martyr still stands between the Mughal palace and the mausoleum of Ranjít Sinh. Jahángír erected the greater Khwábgah or 'Sleeping Palace,' the Motí Masjíd or 'Pearl Mosque,' and the tomb of Anarkalli, now used as a station church. The palace originally consisted of a large quadrangle, surrounded on three sides by a colonnade of red stone pillars, having their capitals intricately carved with figures of peacocks, elephants, and griffins. In the centre of the fourth side, overlooking the Rávi, stood a lofty pavilion in the Mughal style, flanked by two chambers with elaborately decorated verandahs of Hindu architecture. A garden filled the interior space of the quadrangle, with a raised platform of marble mosaic; while beneath the colonnade and pavilion, underground chambers afforded cool retreats from the mid-day sun. But Síkh and European alterations have largely disfigured the beauty of the building, the pavilion having been transformed into a mess-room, and the colonnades walled in to form officers' quarters. Jahángír's mausoleum at Sháhdra still forms one of the chief ornaments of Lahore, though even this has suffered somewhat from later depredations; the marble dome, which once rose over the tomb, having been removed by Aurangzeb. The tombs of Núr-Jahán, his devoted wife, and of her brother Asaf Khán, have fared even worse, having been stripped of their marble facings and coloured enamels by the Síkhs. Sháh Jahán

erected a smaller palace by the side of his father's building, the beauty of which can still be discerned through the inevitable whitewash which covers the marble slabs and hides the depredations of the Síkhs. To the same Emperor we owe the range of buildings to the left of the Khwábgah, with octagonal towers, the largest of which, known as the *Saman Búrj*, contains the exquisite pavilion, inlaid with flowers wrought in precious stones, which derives its name of the Naulaka from its original cost of 9 *lákhs;* together with the Shish Mahál, afterwards the reception-room of Ranjít Sinh, and interesting as the place where Dhulíp Sinh made over the sovereignty of the Punjab to the British Government. Under Aurangzeb, Lahore began to decline in population. Even before his time, the foundation of Jahánábád or modern Delhi had drawn away the bulk of the classes dependent upon the court; and the constant absence of the Emperor contributed still more to depress the city. Aurangzeb also constructed an embankment for 3 miles along the Rávi, to prevent inundations, but with such undesirable success that the river completely altered its course, and left the town at a considerable distance. Among his other works, the Jamá Masjíd or 'Great Mosque' ranks first, a stiff and somewhat ungraceful piece of architecture, which, by its poverty of detail, contrasts with the gorgeous profuseness of Agra and Delhi. With the reign of Aurangzeb, the architectural history of Lahore may be said to close, later attempts marking only the rapid decadence of art, which culminated in the tawdry erections of the Síkhs. From the accession of Bahádur Sháh till the establishment of Ranjít Sinh's authority at the beginning of the present century, the annals of Lahore consist of successive invasions and conquests by Nádir Sháh, Ahmad Sháh, and many less famous depredators (*see* LAHORE DISTRICT). The magnificent city of the Mughal princes and their viceroys sank into a mere heap of ruins, containing a few scattered houses and a couple of Síkh forts within its shrunken walls; while outside, a wide expanse of broken remains marked the site of the decaying towns which once surrounded the metropolis. But the rise of Ranjít Sinh's empire made Lahore once more the centre of a flourishing though ephemeral kingdom. The great Mahárájá stripped the Muhammadan tombs of their ornaments, which he sent to decorate the temple at Amritsar; but he restored the Shalimár gardens, erected a really beautiful *barádari* in the space between the palace and the Jamá Masjíd, and also built a number of minor erections in the very worst taste. His mausoleum, a mixed work of Hindu and Muhammadan architecture, forms one of the latest specimens of Síkh workmanship. In 1846, the British Council of Regency was established at Lahore; and in 1849, the young Mahárájá Dhulíp Sinh transferred the government of the Punjab to the East India Company. Lahore thenceforth became the capital of a British Province, and a new impetus was given

to its rising prosperity. In 1849, the environs still remained a mere expanse of crumbling ruins, and the houses of the first European residents clustered around the old cantonment, on a strip of alluvial lowland, south of the town, running parallel to a former bed of the Rávi. Gradually, however, the station spread eastward, and now a new town covers a large part of the area once given over to ruins and jungle, while every year sees fresh additions to the renovated capital.

General Appearance, Modern Buildings, etc.—Modern Lahore covers an area of 640 acres, surrounded by a brick wall, which formerly rose to a height of 30 feet, and was strengthened by a moat and other defences. But the moat has been filled in, and the wall lowered to a uniform elevation of 16 feet. A garden now occupies the site of the trench, and encircles the city on every side except the north. Though built upon an alluvial plain, the debris of ages has raised the present town to a position upon a considerable mound. A metalled road runs round the outer side of the rampart, and gives access to the city by 13 gates. The citadel or fort rises upon a slight but commanding eminence at the north-eastern angle, and abuts northward on the old river bed, while the esplanade stretches over an open space to the south and east. Within the city, narrow and tortuous streets, ending in *culs-de-sac,* and lined by tall houses, give Lahore a mean and gloomy appearance; but the magnificent buildings of the Mughal period serve to relieve the general dulness of its domestic architecture. On the north-eastern side especially, the Mosque of Aurangzeb, with its plain white marble domes and simple minarets, the mausoleum of Ranjít Sinh, with its rounded roof and projecting balconies, and the desecrated façade of the Mughal palace, stand side by side in front of an open grassy plain, exhibiting one of the grandest *coups-d'œil* to be seen in India. Outside the wall, with a general southerly direction, lies the European quarter. From the Lohári gate, the long street known as the Anarkalli or Sadr Bázár stretches southward, joining the native town to the civil station and abandoned cantonment of Anarkalli. This portion of the new quarter contains the secretariat, financial offices, chief court, and station church. From Anarkalli the civil station now runs 3 miles eastward to the Lawrence Gardens and Government House, the extension in this direction being known as Donald Town, from the late Lieutenant-Governor, Sir Donald M'Leod. A broad road, called the Mall, cuts through the centre of the station, and connects this growing suburb with Anarkalli. North of the Mall, and separated from it by a still desolate space, lies the railway station, surrounded by the bungalows of its employés. South of the Mall, again, the suburb of Muzang contains many European residences. The chief public buildings and institutions include the Punjab University College (endowed by several native Rájás and Nawábs), the Oriental College, the Lahore Govern-

ment College, the Medical School, the Mayo Hospital (a fine building near the Anarkalli *bázár*, capable of accommodating 110 patients), the Museum, the Roberts Institute for European clerks, the Lawrence and Montgomery Halls, and the Agri-Horticultural Society. The military cantonment of MEEAN MEER (Mián Mír) lies 3 miles east of the civil station and 6 miles from the city.

Commerce, Communications, etc.—Lahore possesses comparatively little trade, its business being almost confined to the importation of supplies for the consumption of the inhabitants. Small manufactures of silk and gold or silver lace form the chief source of export trade. The total value of the commerce of Lahore in 1871-72 was—imports, £333,834; exports, £12,395. Railways now connect the capital with most other parts of the Province, and those still under construction will complete the circuit to the frontier and the sea. The terminus of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi line is at Lahore, and a branch to Sher Sháh on the Chenáb unites the Karáchi (Kurrachee) and Kotri line with the Punjab system. The Northern State Railway runs towards Pesháwar. The Grand Trunk Road also passes through Lahore, and lines of telegraph afford communication with Umballa (Ambála), Pesháwar, and Multán (Mooltan). Accommodation for travellers is provided by a *dák* bungalow and numerous hotels. The internal affairs of the city are managed by a municipality of 21 members, of whom 7 are official and 14 non-official. The income is mainly derived from an octroi tax upon trade. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £16,558, or 2s. 6¾d. per head of population (128,738) within municipal limits.

Lahori Bandar.—Village in Haidarábád District, Sind; situated in lat. 24° 32′ N., and long. 67° 28′ E., on the south or left bank of the Baghiar or western branch of the Indus, 20 miles from the Piti mouth. In consequence of the channel on which it is situated having ceased to be navigable, Lahori Bandar has fallen into complete decay, but, according to Thornton, it was once the principal port in Sind, being accessible for ships of 200 tons burthen. At the close of the last century, there was an English factory here.

Lahúl (*Lahaul*).—A Subdivision of Kángra District, Punjab, lying between 32° 8′ and 32° 59′ N. lat., and between 76° 49′ and 77° 46′ 30″ E. long.; and comprising the valley between the Chamba Mountains on the north-west, and the Kanzam range on the south-east. Area, 2199 square miles; population (1868), 5970. Lahúl is bounded on the north-west by Chamba, on the north-east by the Rúpshu Subdivision of Ladákh, on the south-west by Kángra and Kullu, and on the south-east by Spiti. For administrative purposes, it forms part of the Kullu *tahsíl*.

Physical Aspects.—Lahúl consists of an elevated and rugged Himálayan valley, traversed by the snow-fed torrents of the Chandra and the Bhága, which take their rise on the slopes of the Bára Lácha Pass. At

Tándi the sister streams unite to form the great river Chenáb, which flows immediately into Chamba on its way to the Punjab plain. On either side of the two river glens, and in the triangular space between them, the mountains rise to the level of perpetual snow, leaving only a narrow strip of wild and desolate valley fringing the streams themselves. To the north-east, the peaks about the Bára Lácha tower to a height of over 20,000 feet; while the pass itself, the least elevated part of the whole range, is 16,221 feet above sea level. Between the two rivers an isolated mass of mountains attains still greater dimensions, consisting of one almost unbroken ice-field, with, at rare intervals, impassable barriers of naked rock. South of the highest peak, 21,415 feet above the sea, a glacier stretches downward for 12 miles; while east and west the hills, though slightly inferior in elevation, still reach the limits of the snow-line, and flank the valley on every side, except along the narrow outlet of the Chenáb. In such a waste of rock and ice, villages can only be planted in a few comparatively favoured spots, among the lower valleys of the Chandra and the Bhága; the remainder of the Subdivision is completely uninhabited, except for a few weeks in summer, when the Kullu shepherds bring up their flocks for pasturage. Picturesque knots of houses, however, nestle here and there in sheltered nooks, amid green irrigated fields, made beautiful by the exquisite Himálayan flora. Quaint conical buildings, erected in honour of some saint or Lama, stand just outside the villages; while, on the hillside above, the white walls and flying flags of some tiny Buddhist monastery give animation to the scene. The inhabited portions of the Lahúl valley have an estimated elevation of 10,000 feet above sea level. Kangser, the highest village, stands at a height of 11,345 feet.

History.—The Lahúl valley is mentioned as early as the 7th century in the *Itinerary* of Hiouen Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, who notices it under the name of Lo-hu-lo, as a district lying north-east of Kullu. In the earliest times, it probably formed a dependency of the Thibetan kingdom; and on the disruption of that empire in the 10th century, it seems to have been included in the principality of Ladákh. We have no information to show the period at which it became independent, though reasons have been adduced for believing that that event preceded the reorganization of Ladákh in 1580. An epoch of native rule under petty chiefs (Thákurs) ensued, during which the various local families appear to have paid tribute to Chamba. About the year 1700, the supremacy passed to Kullu, in the reign of Budh Sinh, son of Rájá Jagat Sinh, a contemporary of Sháh Jahán and Aurangzeb. Thenceforward, Lahúl followed the fortunes of KULLU, until they passed together under British rule in 1846.

Population.—In 1855, the population of Lahúl amounted to only 2535 persons. By 1868, the number had risen to 5970. The Thákurs,

numbering 216, form the gentry of the valley, which they ruled until a recent period. They are pure Bhutiyas or Thibetans by blood, but affect a Rájput ancestry. The Kanets, who number 4566, and make up the mass of the population, have a mixed Indian and Mongolian origin, the latter element predominating. In religion, the people belong to the Buddhist faith, though a Hinduizing tendency exhibits itself in the distinctions of caste and the prohibition of beef as an article of food. A few pure Hindus, of Bráhman rank, live in the lower villages, while a mixture of the two faiths occurs commonly in the intervening tract. Numerous monasteries stud the hills, the largest being that of Guru Gantál, at the point of confluence of the Chandra and Bhága. Polyandry is customary. The Lahúlís bear a good character as peaceable and honest mountaineers, but are much addicted to drunkenness and unchastity. The chief villages are Kielang, Kardong, and Kolang.

Agriculture, Trade, etc.—Out of a total area of about 1,407,000 acres, only 3096 acres are under cultivation. Barley forms the principal crop, but wheat grows in the lower glens. Cultivation depends entirely on small irrigation canals, constructed and kept in repair by the village landowners. The grain produced does not suffice for local consumption, and has therefore to be supplemented by imports from Kullu. The Lahúlís hold in their hands the trade between Ladákh and Central Asia on the one hand, and Kullu and the Punjab on the other. Collecting their merchandise from the north, they pass annually into Kullu at the end of summer, driving their goats and sheep, laden with *pashm* or shawl-wool, borax, and cloth; while on their return journey they bring metal vessels, sugar, rice, wheat, tobacco, pepper, ginger, and turmeric.

Administration. — The valley forms part of Kullu *tahsíl.* The revenue amounts to £185. The Government has established a school at Kielang, where Urdu and Thibetan are taught, under the supervision of the Moravian missionaries. A post office is kept open at the same place during the summer months. The mean temperature at Kardong is 46° F. in March, 59° F. in June, and 29° F. in September.

Lai-byouk.—Revenue circle in the Myoung-mya township, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 77 sq. miles; pop. (1876), 2546; gross revenue, £770. Limestone is quarried to a small extent.

Láichanpur.—Port on the Kánsbáns river, Balasor District, Bengal. The mouth of the river has now nearly silted up, and is concealed by a dense fringe of jungle. It is not navigable by vessels of more than 45 tons burden. The rice sloops taking in cargoes at this port load while at anchor several miles out to sea, the rice being carried to them in small boats. The sloops come as near the coast as the high tide permits, and when the water recedes they are left resting on a soft and yielding cushion of mud; the vessels are thus secure in case of storms.

In 1873-74, the value of the imports of Láichanpur and Churaman, its sister port, amounted to £251, and that of the exports to £13,831.

Lai-daw. — Revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 6104; gross revenue, £1085. The greater portion is covered with grass jungle, with *sha* (Acacia catechu) and *tha-bye* (Eugenia sp.) intermixed.

Láira (*Lehira*).—Chiefship in Sambalpur District, Central Provinces. Lat. 21° 44′ N., long. 84° 17′ E.; 17 miles north-east of Sambalpur. Estimated pop. about 4250, chiefly agriculturists, residing in 25 villages; area, 26 square miles, nearly the whole of which is cultivated. Chief products—rice, pulses, oil-seeds, and sugar-cane. Iron ore is found. The chief is a Gond.

Láit-máo-doh. — Mountain range in the Khási Hills, Assam. Highest peak, 5377 feet above sea level.

Lá-ká-dong (or *Umat*).—Village in the south of the Jáintia Hills, Assam; 2200 feet above sea level. There is a coal-field here, with an estimated area of 0·394 square mile, and a marketable out-turn of 1,100,000 tons. The mineral is of an excellent quality either for producing gas or coke. From its composition, quick combustion, and irregular cleavage, it is computed to be about 6 per cent. inferior to good English coal. The great difficulty in its profitable working lies in the want of means of communication. Lá-ká-dong is 6 miles from Borghát, a village on a tributary of the Surmá, which is navigable all the year round by boats of about 28 tons burthen; but from Lá-ká-dong to Borghát only coolie-carriage is at present available. The mine is the sole property of Government, which leased the rights of working to a succession of European capitalists from 1848 to 1859. During that period about 5000 tons of coal were raised for exportation.

Lákápádar.—One of the petty States in South Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue (1876), £300; tribute of £15 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £2, 8s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Lakhandái. —Tributary of the Baghmati river, Bengal; a small stream, which rises in Nepál, and enters Muzaffarpur District at Itarwá. After being joined by the Sauran and Básíád, it becomes more important; its breadth here is 40 yards, and depth 15 feet. Flows south and joins the Bághmatí 7 or 8 miles south of the Darbhangah-Muzaffarpur road, which is carried over it by an iron girder bridge. In the rains, the Lakhandái is navigable as far as Sítámarhí by boats of nearly 20 tons burthen; but above this village a rapid current renders navigation dangerous. The Rájápatí, Dumrá, Beláhí, Serpur, and Rájkhand factories draw their water from this stream.

Lakhát.—Village in Sylhet District, Assam, at the south foot of the Khási Hills. The weekly market is frequented by Khási and Synteng

traders, who bring down the produce of their hills to exchange for cotton goods, salt, rice, and hardware.

Lakhi (*Laki*).—Mountain range in Sind, connected with the Hála or Brahuik Mountains in Baluchistán; the most easterly of a number of hill ranges in the western part of Sind, extending between Baluchistán and the alluvial tract of the Indus, and also between the desert of Shikárpur and Karáchi (Kurrachee). Length of range, about 50 miles; greatest elevation, 1500 to 2000 feet. Lat. (centre) 26° N., long. 67° 50′ E. The mountains are for the most part of recent formation, containing marine exuviæ in great quantities; but some parts yield lead, antimony, and copper. The whole tract is wild and dreary.

Lakhi (*Laki*).—Government village in Sehwán Deputy Collectorate, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind; situated close to the west bank of the Indus, and adjacent to the entrance of what is known as the Lakhi Pass, through which runs the Indus Valley Railway. The place is picturesquely situated, the Lakhi Mountains, here of considerable elevation, sloping down to the west of the town, which is on the main road leading from Kotri to Sehwán. Branch road to the Dhára Tirth or 'hot springs,' distant about 2 miles. From Sehwán, this village is distant 14 miles south, and from Mánjhand 32 miles north-west. Post office, *dharmsála*, and police lines. Pop. (1872), 1018, namely, 833 Musalmáns and 185 Hindus, principally occupied in agriculture.

Lakhi (*Laki*).—Town in Shikárpur District, Sind. Lat. 27° 51′ 30″ N., long. 68° 44′ E.; elevation above sea, 234 feet. It is on the main road between Shikárpur and Sukkur (8 miles south of the former), and has road communication also with the villages of Mári and Kazi-Wáhan. It is the headquarters station of a *tappadár*, and has a travellers' bungalow, school, and cattle pound. Police post of 8 men. Pop. (1872), 1414, of whom 835 are Musalmáns and 579 Hindus. The town of Lakhi is of ancient date, and was the chief place of that part of Sind known as Burdika and Lárkána, at a time when the present site of Shikárpur was covered with thick forest. Soon after the founding of Shikárpur, Lakhi gradually dwindled away in size and importance.

Lakhimpur.—A British District occupying the extreme eastern portion of the Province of Assam; situated on both banks of the Brahmaputra, and lying between 26° 51′ and 27° 54′ N. lat., and between 93° 49′ and 96° 4′ E. long. The area within these limits is estimated at about 11,500 square miles, but the greater portion is sparsely occupied by hill tribes, who do not acknowledge the regular authority of the British Government. The settled portion of the District was ascertained by the recent Survey to cover an area of 3191·73 square miles, with a population of 121,267, according to the Census of 1872. It is to this tract only that the remainder of this article relates, unless otherwise specially stated. The Parliamentary Abstract for 1878 returns the

area at 3723 square miles. No estimate of population exists for the hills. The administrative headquarters are at DIBRUGARH, near the confluence of the Dibru river with the Brahmaputra.

The District, in its wider sense, is bounded north by the Daphla, Mírí, Abar, and Mishmí Hills; east by the Mishmí and Singpho Hills; south by the watershed of the Pátkai range and the Lohit branch of the Brahmaputra; west by the Districts of Darrang and Síbságar, the latter District being separated by the Marámarnái river. To the north and east the British frontier remains undefined and undeclared; on the extreme south, an agreement has been arrived at between the British and Burmese Governments, but a debateable land is occupied by various savage communities who cling to their independence.

Physical Aspects.—Lakhimpur consists of a narrow strip of level country fringing both banks of the Brahmaputra, from which the hills rise abruptly north, south, and east. It is situated at the head of the Assam valley, where the Brahmaputra and its great tributaries burst through the gorges of the Himálayas; and across its boundaries no European traveller has yet been able to penetrate. The scenery is both varied and picturesque. Along the banks of the river grow gigantic grasses and reeds. Farther inland are seen extensive paddy fields, dotted with villages, which are encircled by groves of bamboo and fruit-trees. In the distance, black, pathless forests stretch away from the lower slopes high up towards the snow-capped mountains. Except in the unsurveyed tracts, there are no mountains within the District. In the south-east, however, near Jáipur, there are a few small knolls, rising 200 or 300 feet above the plain.

The river system is constituted by the Brahmaputra and its numerous tributaries and offshoots. The great river itself flows through the District for a distance of 400 miles. As far as Dibrugarh, it is navigable for steamers and large native boats at all seasons of the year. During the rains, steamers can get up to Sadiyá, but above that place the current is so rapid as to render the passage of canoes dangerous. The real source and early channel of the Brahmaputra have not yet been definitely ascertained. The same may be said of its two great tributaries, the Dibang and Dihang, the latter of which breaks through the Himálayas, and both of which join the Brahmaputra in Lakhimpur District. They are at no season navigable by any craft larger than canoes. The other important tributaries are—on the north bank, the Subansiri, which is navigable for some distance by steamers, and itself receives numerous hill streams; on the south bank, the Dibru and Burí Dihing (both navigable by steamers), Tingrái-nadí, and Sásu. The Lohit is a large branch of the Brahmaputra, said to have been produced by the floods of the Subansiri; it flows parallel to the main stream for a winding course of about 70 miles. In 1869, the right of fishing in the rivers

was leased out by Government for £468. In the settled portion of the District, forests are estimated to cover an area of 2950 square miles; but they have not yet been brought under the supervision of the Forest Department. Owing to an improvident system of leasing, the plains have now been entirely stripped of the valuable caoutchouc or india-rubber tree. Other jungle products are silk, bees-wax, and various drugs and dyes. Wild animals of all kinds abound, including elephants, rhinoceros, buffaloes, the *mithun* or wild cow, bears, and deer. The right of capturing wild elephants is a Government monopoly, and is annually farmed out. From £2000 to £3000 a year is realized from this source, in addition to a royalty of £10 on each elephant captured, which increases the sum above mentioned by about one-half. The mineral wealth of Lakhimpur has not yet been developed. Coal has been discovered on the Burí Dihing river, in the neighbourhood of Jáipur, of good quality. Petroleum also abounds in the same locality. Building-stone and limestone occur along the banks of the Brahmaputra, and beds of iron-clay near Jáipur and Barhát. From time immemorial, gold has been washed in many of the hill streams, especially on the north of the Brahmaputra. The class who earn their livelihood by gold-washing are known as Hanuáls. The rise in wages caused by the introduction of tea cultivation, and the increased demand for india-rubber, have interfered greatly with this industry.

History.—This tract of country figures largely in the annals of Assam, as the region where successive invaders from the east first reached the Brahmaputra, and as being always inhabited by a turbulent population. The earliest traditions, if trustworthy, indicate that Lakhimpur was in remote times the centre of a flourishing Hindu civilisation, connected with the name of a Pál dynasty. The first invaders were the Bára (or twelve) Bhuiyás, who are supposed to have been leaders of a colony, driven from the western Provinces of India by domestic convulsions. To these chiefs is attributed the construction of the large tanks still to be seen in the neighbourhood of Bánskáta and Lakhimpur town; but they have left no traces in the present population of the country. The Bára Bhuiyás are said to have been driven out by the Chutiás, the first of the races of Shan origin who penetrated into Assam. The Chutiá kingdom appears to have centred on the banks of the Subansiri river, and to have been of no long duration. The Chutias were in their turn driven out by the Ahams, whose arrival is placed in the 13th century. The Chutiás sustained the struggle for some years, but in the end were completely defeated, many of them being removed to the tract now known as Chutiá, in the adjoining District of Darrang. The Ahams are also a tribe of Shan descent, whose original home was in the hilly tract of country known as the Kingdom of Pong. Their

modern representatives are quiet agriculturists; but at the time of the conquest the Ahams were undoubtedly a fierce and warlike race, with great capacity for administration. They gradually extended their rule down the valley of the Brahmaputra; and on the frontier of Bengal defended themselves successfully against the generals of the Mughal Emperor, Aurangzeb. It is also said that the neighbouring hill tribes acknowledged an allegiance to the Aham kings, which some of them now refuse to British authority. The greatest of the dynasty was Rájá Rudrá Sinh, under whom all Assam was flourishing and peaceful. The downfall of Lakhimpur is assigned to the reign of Gaurináth Sinh, who was driven out of his capital into Lower Assam, and left this prosperous tract to be devastated by the insurgents. It was at this time that the race known as Moámáriá or Maran established their independence on the south bank of the Brahmaputra; while the Khamtís ravaged the north-east corner in the neighbourhood of Sadiyá. Order had scarcely been restored under the administration of the Bará Gosáin, when the Burmese commenced their series of invasions which finally depopulated the whole country. On one occasion the inhabitants made a desperate stand in the neighbourhood of Lakhimpur town, but they were completely defeated, and the survivors were exposed to most wanton cruelties. The misfortunes of Lakhimpur did not cease even with the expulsion of the Burmese in 1825. For several years after the British had nominally annexed the whole Province of Assam, they were unable to spare a single European officer for the civil administration of this remote tract. The southern region, known as Matak, and now included within the Subdivision of Dibrugarh, was allowed to remain under its native chief, whose rule was of a mild and patriarchal character. But on the death of the old chief in 1839, the conditions proposed to his successor were not accepted, and the country was then taken under direct British management. In the same year, it was resolved to dispossess Rájá Purandar Sinh, who had been placed over a tract stretching across both banks of the Brahmaputra, which corresponds to the eastern half of the Subdivision of North Lakhimpur and all Síbságar District. The misrule of the governor, the exactions of his subordinates, and the aggressions of the hill tribes, had reduced this tract to extreme desolation. So late as 1853, it was described as 'a wilderness from which it will take years to recover;' and even at the present day it is the most sparsely populated portion of the Province. The third portion of the District, called Sadiyá, had also been allowed to continue under a native governor, who was in this case a Khamtí chief. In 1835, it was found necessary to place the administration under the control of the military officer who had from the first been stationed at Sadiyá town. Four years later, the Khamtís swept down from the hills, destroyed the town, and cut to pieces the detach-

ment of Sepoys, together with Major White, the commandant and Political Agent. Since 1839, when the entire District was resumed by the British, such inroads have been successfully checked. The hill tribes are learning the advantages of peaceful intercourse; agriculture is extending on the plains, and the introduction of the tea plant has opened a new era of prosperity.

Population.—Two early estimates of the population are in existence, which give elaborate details, and are said to have been arrived at after actual counting. The enumeration in 1847-48 showed a total of 81,917 persons, who had increased by 1852-53 to 85,296. Like the preceding enumerations, the regular Census of 1871 was confined to the settled and revenue-paying tract, as it was considered inexpedient to raise any difficulties with the hill tribes. The agency employed was that of the *mauzádárs* or revenue village officials; and the process of counting, instead of being effected in a single night as in Bengal, was protracted over the greater part of four months. The results disclosed a total population of 121,267 persons, residing in 26,398 houses and in 125 *mauzás* or village units. The area of the tract was taken at 3145 square miles, which gives the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 39; villages per square mile, ·04; houses per square mile, 8. The average number of persons per village is 970; of persons per house, 4·6. Classified according to sex, there are 64,692 males and 56,575 females; proportion of males, 53·4 per cent. Classified according to age, there are — under 12 years, 22,669 males and 20,276 females; total children, 42,945, or 35·4 per cent. of the population. The ethnical division of the people shows 137 Europeans and 1 West Indian, 7 Eurasians, 1 Armenian, 6 Bhutiás, and 194 Nepálís, 28,388 aborigines, 68,388 semi-Hinduized aborigines, 19,748 Hindus (subdivided according to caste), 557 persons of Hindu origin not recognising caste, 3826 Muhammadans, 14 Burmese. As might be anticipated from the history and geographical position of Lakhimpur, the proportion of Hindus proper is lower than in any other District of Assam. The Bráhmans number 1142, the Rájputs 340, the Káyasths 902, the trading castes from the north-west about 410 collectively. By far the most numerous caste is the Kolitá (3406), the former priests of the aboriginal kings of Assam; they have now taken to agriculture, and rank as pure Súdras. Hindus of unspecified caste number 6115, or nearly one-third of the whole. The tribes ranked in the Census Report as semi-Hinduized aborigines constitute more than half the total population. The most numerous tribe is the Aham, the former rulers of the country, who still number 43,942, or more than twice as many as the Hindus proper. Next come the kindred Chutiás (9453); the Doms, a tribe of peculiar exclusiveness in Assam (8578); and the Kochs (3747). The pure aborigines consist of three classes—

representative communities of the neighbouring hill tribes; immigrants of old standing, such as the Cácharís; and labourers on the tea plantations recently imported from Central India. The neighbouring hill tribes may again be subdivided into two broadly distinguished races—(1) those of Shan descent, who have forced their way across the hills from the south, represented by the Khamtís and Singphos; (2) a group of Indo-Chinese origin, comprising the Mishmís, Abars, Mírís, Daphlas, and Akás, who occupy the slopes and spurs of the Himálayas along the north of the District. The great bulk of these tribes live in mountain fastnesses, far beyond the British frontier; but all of them have sent out little colonies, who settle down peaceably on the borders of the plains, and learn the arts of agriculture and commerce. According to the Census Report, the Mírís in the revenue-paying territory number 4886, and the Khamtís, 1562. The Cácharís number as many as 14,959, the Kols from Chutiá Nágpur, 1360. Classified according to religion, the population is composed of—Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes), 115,638, or 95·4 per cent.; Musalmáns, 3826, or 3·1 per cent.; Buddhists, 449; Christians, 316, including 170 native converts; and 1038 'others.' It is reported that large numbers of the hill tribes are annually converted from their indigenous forms of demon-worship to Hinduism. The faith of Islám now makes no progress. The comparatively large number of Musalmáns in this remote corner, into which the Mughal armies never penetrated, is attributed partly to the fact that the Aham kings used to import Muhammadan artificers for their public works, and partly to a later immigration of shopkeepers from Dacca. The Faráizí or reforming spirit is said to have made some progress among them. The majority of the native Christians consist of tea labourers imported from Chutiá Nágpur. Among persons of Hindu origin, the Census returns 28 Vaishnavs, 25 Gosáins, and 113 Mataks. The last-mentioned sect represents the rude tribe of Moámáriás or Marans, who inhabit the south-eastern portion of the District. They became converts to the Vishnuvite form of Hinduism at an early period, and their persecution by the Durgá-worshipping kings of Assam led to many outbreaks, and ultimately to the assertion of their independence.

There are no regular towns in Lakhimpur District. The most populous place is the civil station of DIBRUGARH, situated on the Dibru river, a few miles above its junction with the Brahmaputra. It contains 881 houses and (1872) 3870 inhabitants, including 1096 in the cantonments. Other places of some importance as centres of river traffic are—LAKHIMPUR, the headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name, pop. 577; and SADIYA, which is occupied as a frontier station by a detachment of Native infantry. An annual fair is held at Sadiyá in the month of February, on which occasion Government presents are distributed among the frontier tribes.

Agriculture.—As throughout the rest of Assam, rice forms the one staple crop, the only other cereal cultivated being Indian corn in small quantities. Rice harvest is subdivided into two usual crops—the *sálí*, sown in lowlands about July, transplanted in the following month, and reaped in December; the *áhu* or *áus*, sown in high lands about March, not generally transplanted, and reaped in October. The green crops grown in the District consist of many varieties of pulses, and mustard grown as an oil-seed. The miscellaneous crops comprise several sorts of fibres and of sugar-cane, mulberry, long pepper, potatoes, and pumpkins. Among fruit-trees, are the orange, lime, lemon, citron, and plantain. Rice cultivation is said to have fallen off since the introduction of tea. In 1871, it was estimated that 61,490 acres were actually under cultivation, or only one hundred and fiftieth part of the total area. The several crops were thus apportioned:—Rice, 39,460 acres; tea, 15,000; pulses, 2130; vegetable and potatoes, 1000 each; cotton, 850; oil-seeds, 750; sugar-cane, 300; other crops, 1000. About 2300 acres bear a second crop of vegetables, oil-seeds, or pulses. Manure is not generally used, except for sugar-cane, and then in the form of the sweepings of cattle-sheds. It is stated, however, that the dead fish left on the lowlands after the subsidence of the annual inundations serve as a natural fertilizer. Irrigation from neighbouring tanks or pools is sometimes resorted to in the case of the rice crop. The entire soil is the property of Government. Leases are granted to the individual cultivators at the following rates, which are common to all Assam:—For *basti* or homestead lands, 6s. an acre; for *rupit* or low-lying lands, on which rice is grown, 3s. 9d. an acre; for *faringhátí* or dry lands, suited for vegetables, etc., 3s. an acre. In early times the revenue used to be collected by means of a poll tax, varying in amount from 1s. to 2s. a head; an assessment on the land was first introduced in 1841. The average out-turn from an acre of *rupit* land is estimated at about 26 cwts. of unhusked paddy of the *sálí* crop; from an acre of *faringhátí* land, about 12 cwts. of *áus* paddy. From both lands a second crop is sometimes raised, which may amount to 13 cwts. of either pulses or fibres, or half that weight of cotton.

Within the past twelve years, since tea cultivation has been conducted on an extensive scale, rates of wages have more than doubled; ordinary labour, in fact, is almost unobtainable. Day-labourers now receive from 4½d. to 6d. a day; bricklayers, from 6d. to 9d.; and smiths and carpenters, about 1s. The price of food grains has risen in an equal proportion. Best rice now sells at about 10s. per cwt.; common rice, at about 6s.; and common unhusked paddy, at 3s. 5d. Prices were not affected by the famine of 1866.

Lakhimpur District is not specially liable to the calamities of flood and drought. The harvest is not known to have failed generally within

the memory of the present generation. In the event of a deficient rainfall, the augmented produce of the low-lying lands and the marshes would probably compensate for the failure of the crops on the higher levels. A few embankments are in existence as a protection against excessive inundations, but they have been suffered to fall into a bad state of repair. If the price of common unhusked paddy were to rise to 5s. 5d. per cwt. in the rural markets in the month of January, that should be regarded as a sign of approaching distress.

Manufactures, etc. — Local manufactures consist chiefly of mats, basket-work, and silk cloth, which are made up by the people themselves, each family providing for its own wants. There are a few potters and braziers; but the pottery manufactured is of the poorest description, and the importation of cheap brass utensils from Bengal has destroyed the native manufacture, which was of well amalgamated metal and of a handsome shape. The silk cloth, known as *mugá*, is made from the cocoons of the *mugá* worm (Saturnia assamungis), which feeds on the leaves of the *súm* tree. This moth is found wild in the jungle; but domesticated worms imported from Nowgong or Kámrúp are alone used for silk. While feeding on the *súm* trees, constant care has to be exercised to protect the worms from their enemies of the bird and insect world. A thousand cocoons will produce from 6 to 8 ounces of silk thread, which is worth from 10s. to 11s. per pound. A silk waist-cloth (*dhutí*), 18 feet long by 3 feet wide, sells for from £1, 4s. to £2, according to quality. Very little silk is exported, and the manufacture has greatly fallen off since the prosperous days of the Aham kings.

The cultivation and manufacture of tea is conducted by European capital and under European supervision. Lakhimpur District was the scene of the first attempts at tea cultivation by the Government about the year 1835, and the Assam Company commenced operations here in 1840. After having passed through periods of depression, arising from reckless speculation and want of experience, the industry has now reached a stable position, and has made great strides in recent years. In 1874, there were 112 gardens under plant, covering an area of 89,370 acres, of which 11,680 acres were actually in bearing. The total out-turn was 1,811,920 lbs., showing an increase of 320,725 lbs. on the previous year. The number of European superintendents employed was 42, with 176 native assistants; the total number of labourers was 10,612, of whom 7936 had been imported under contract from Bengal. Hopes have been entertained that the mineral wealth of Lakhimpur would also attract European capital. In 1866, operations were commenced in the coal-field near Jáipur, where the coal is of excellent quality, and can be quarried without mining. About 6700 tons in all were raised; but it was found that the mineral could not be

brought to market at a sufficiently low rate to enable it to compete with imports from Bengal. At the same time, a scheme for working the petroleum wells in the neighbourhood of the coal-field was taken up with much energy, but it was unfortunately broken off, owing to the death of its promoter.

The rivers constitute the principal means of communication in the District. In addition, there were, in 1876, 429 miles of road, maintained at an annual cost of £658.

The commerce of the District is entirely conducted by river; and is mainly in the hands of Márwárís from the north-west, and Musalmáns from Dacca. The chief centres of trade are Dibrugarh, Lakhimpur town, Jáipur, and Sadiyá. The exports consist of tea, *mugá* silk thread, india-rubber, bees-wax, ivory, and mustard seed; in return for which the following articles are imported—rice, opium, tobacco, salt, oil, iron, and cotton cloth. It is thought that the value of the exports, including tea, largely exceeds the value of the imports; but no trustworthy statistics are available. An annual fair has recently been established by Government at the frontier station of Sadiyá, but the importance of this gathering is rather political than commercial.

Administration.—In 1870-71, the net revenue of Lakhimpur District amounted to £48,430, towards which the land tax contributed £14,300, or 30 per cent.; the net expenditure was £24,856, or about half the revenue. The land revenue has increased from £3578 in 1850, to £15,646 in 1875. In 1870-71, there were 3 covenanted officials stationed in the District, and 5 magisterial and 10 civil and revenue courts open. For police purposes, Lakhimpur is divided into 6 police circles, with 7 outpost stations. In 1872, the regular police consisted of a force of 346 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £6374. These figures show 1 policeman to every 9·09 square miles or to every 350 of the population, and an average cost of £2, 0s. 6d. per square mile, or 1s. 1d. per head of population. There is no municipal police in Lakhimpur, and the *chaukídárs* or village watch of Bengal are not found anywhere in Assam proper. In the same year, the total number of persons in Lakhimpur District convicted of any offence, great or small, was 371, being 1 person in every 327 of the population. By far the greater proportion of the convictions were for petty offences. The District contains 1 jail and 1 Subdivisional lock-up. In 1872, the average daily number of prisoners was 65, of whom 2 were females; the labouring convicts averaged 56. These figures show 1 prisoner in jail to every 1928 of the population. The total cost amounted to £869, or £13, 7s. 3d. per prisoner; the jail manufactures yielded a net profit of £50.

Education had not made much progress in Lakhimpur till Sir G. Campbell's reforms, by which the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules was

extended to the *páthsálás* or village schools. In 1856, there were only 7 schools in the whole District, attended by 286 pupils. By 1870, apparently owing to some change in system, these numbers had fallen to 3 schools and 216 pupils; but in 1873, after the above-mentioned reforms had come into operation, the schools increased to 24, and the pupils to 699. These figures show 1 school to every 133 square miles, and 6 pupils to every thousand of the population. In 1873, the total expenditure on education was £581, towards which Government contributed £320. In addition, there were 21 unaided *páthsálás*. The chief institution is the Government Higher School at Dibrugarh, attended by 91 pupils.

The District is divided into 3 administrative Subdivisions, and into 6 *thánás* or police circles. The Subdivision of North Lakhimpur, which covers the whole tract north of the Brahmaputra, and contains (1872) 39,158 inhabitants, scattered over an area of 1107 square miles, is considered for certain purposes to form an independent District by itself. The recent Survey returned the total number of *mauzás* or petty fiscal divisions at 84. There is no municipality in the District.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Lakhimpur is of an exceptional character. There are only two clearly defined seasons in the year; the hot and rainy season, which lasts for four months, from the middle of June to the middle of October; and the cold and dry season, which occupies the remainder of the year. The months of April and May are described as particularly cool and pleasant. The mean annual temperature is about 65° F., and the average rainfall is about 115 inches in the year.

The endemic diseases are malarious fevers and their sequelæ, various kinds of cutaneous disorders, rheumatic affections, bronchocele, and suppurative inflammation of the lymphatic glands. It has been observed that phthisis, which is prevalent among some of the hill tribes on the north of the Brahmaputra, attacks Hindustání settlers, but spares the native Hindus and Europeans. Cholera, also, which has repeatedly ravaged the District in recent years, seems to pass over Europeans. In 1861, more than 15 per cent. of the total population were estimated to have been attacked by cholera, and about 10 per cent. to have died. Increased cultivation, and the clearance of jungle through the enterprise of tea planters, have favourably influenced the general health of the District; and conservancy arrangements now receive careful attention in the town of Dibrugarh. The vital statistics in selected areas show a death-rate in 1874 of 25 per thousand in the rural area, and 70·8 per thousand in the urban area, which is conterminous with Dibrugarh. Out of the total number of deaths, 389 were assigned to cholera, 206 to fevers, 131 to bowel complaints, and 33 to small-pox. Cattle diseases of a very fatal character have made their

appearance in the District several times in recent years, having been apparently imported from Bengal.

Lakhimpur (or *North Lakhimpur*).—Subdivision in the north of Lakhimpur District, Assam, lying between 27° and 28° N. lat., and between 94° and 95° E. long. Estimated area, 1107 square miles; pop. (1872), 39,158. The administrative headquarters are at the village of LAKHIMPUR. The Subdivision is bounded north by the Daphla and Mírí Hills, and south by the Brahmaputra. It is watered by the Subansiri and its tributaries, in most of which gold is found by washing. In former times caoutchouc was abundant in the jungles, but now it can only be collected beyond the frontier. The most valuable wild products are a scarlet root called *asu*, used for dyeing, and the bark of a tree called *udal*, which yields a fibre equal in strength to flax. Apart from the cultivation of rice, the only indigenous industry is the weaving of silk from the *mugá* and *eriá* worms. The *mugá* worm feeds in the open on the leaves of the *súm* tree (Artocarpus chaplasha); the *eriá* worm requires to be carefully reared in-doors on the leaves of the castor-oil plant (Ricinus communis). It is calculated that about 328 cwts. of silk cloth are annually produced in North Lakhimpur, valued at £3036. Tea cultivation and manufacture are largely conducted with European capital and under European supervision. The chief difficulty of the planters lies in the scarcity of labour. The country is very sparsely populated, there being only 35 persons to the square mile; and the natives are too well off and independent to care to work regularly on the gardens. In 1871, the value of the exports from the Subdivision was estimated at £22,000, chiefly tea, caoutchouc, silk cloth, and rice; the imports were valued at £16,000, chiefly oil, salt, and cotton cloth. The inhabitants principally belong to aboriginal and semi-Hinduized tribes—Ahams, Doms, Chutiás, Kochs, Kalitás, Cácháris, Sarániyás, and Mirís.

Lakhimpur (or *North Lakhimpur*).—Village in the north of Lakhimpur District, Assam; on the Gariáján river, a tributary of the Subansiri. Lat. 27° 14′ 5″ N., long. 94° 7′ 10″ E.; pop. (1869), 577. The headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name, and a centre of local trade. The Gariáján is only navigable during the rainy season. The public buildings include a lock-up and a charitable dispensary.

Lakhimpur.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Kheri District, Oudh, lying between 27° 47′ 15″ and 28° 29′ 30″ N. lat., and between 80° 20′ and 81° 4′ E. long. Bounded on the north and east by Dhaurahra *tahsíl*; on the south by Sítápur District; and on the west by Muhamdi *tahsíl*, and Sháhjahánpur District in the North-Western Provinces. The *tahsíl* comprises the 5 *parganás* of KHERI, SRINAGAR, BHUR, PAILA, and KUKRA MAILANI. Area, 1078 square miles, of which 463 are under cultivation. Pop. (1869), 302,312, namely, 267,906 Hindus

and 34,406 Muhammadans; number of males, 161,781, and females, 140,531. Number of villages, 705.

Lakhimpur.—Administrative headquarters of Kheri District, Oudh; picturesquely situated about a mile south of the Ul river. Lat. 27° 56′ 45″ N., long. 80° 49′ 20″ E.; pop. (1869), 1654, consisting of 1328 Hindus and 326 Muhammadans. The town contains the usual public offices and court-houses. Masonry houses are increasing, and trade is rapidly extending. Daily markets, and also special bi-weekly ones, are held in the *bázár*.

Lakhipur.—Village in Goálpára District, and village in Cáchár District, Assam.—*See* LAKSHMIPUR.

Lakhí Sarái.—Railway station in Monghyr District, Bengal.—*See* LUCKEESERAI.

Lakhmia.—An offshoot of the Brahmaputra, Bengal; which river it leaves at Tok, a village on the northern border of Maimansinh District. It then flows southwards and empties itself into the Dhaleswari (lat. 23° 34′ N., long. 90° 34′ E.), about 4 miles from its junction with the Meghná. The Lakhmia, with its high and well-wooded banks, is one of the most beautiful rivers in Eastern Bengal; it is also remarkable for the purity and coolness of its waters. For five months of the year, it is a tidal stream; but it is only fordable at Ekdála. Owing to the silting up of the Brahmaputra, the waters of the Lakhmia are gradually decreasing.

Lakhna.—Market town in Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 38′ 55″ N., long. 79° 11′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 2857, chiefly Bráhmans and Márwárís. Situated 2 miles south of the Etáwah and Kálpi road, 14 miles south-east of the former town. Residence of Rájá Jaswant Sinh, C.S.I., who has built a temple to Kálí Kájí from the proceeds of a religious fair established by himself. Considerable trade in *ghí* and cotton. School-house occupies the site of former *tahsíli*, now removed to Bharthna.

Lakhnádon.—The northern *tahsíl* or revenue Subdivision of Seoni District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 126,034, residing in 761 villages or townships and 25,039 houses; area, 1383 square miles.

Lakhnauti.—Decayed town in Sahéranpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 46′ N., long. 77° 16′ E.; pop. (1872), 3998. Situated on the Karnál road, 26 miles south-west of Saháranpur, and close to the high bank leading down to the Jumna (Jamuná) lowlands. Fine specimen of an old native fort. Village school, branch post office. This and five neighbouring villages belong to a colony of Turkománs, in the last stages of poverty. During the last century, however, it possessed considerable strength. In 1794, Bapu Sindhia, Marhattá governor of Saháranpur, was long engaged in reducing it, and the commandant did not surrender until reinforcements arrived under George Thomas, and a practicable breach was effected.

Lakhtar (*Thán Lakhtar*). — Native State within the Political Agency of Káthiáwár, in the Province of Guzerat, Bombay, lying between 22° 49′ and 23° N. lat., and between 71° 46′ and 72° 3′ E. long. Estimated pop. (1872), 20,436; number of villages, 41. There are some rocky tracts in the State, but neither rivers nor hills of any size. The climate is hot and dry, but healthy, the only prevailing disease being fever. Cotton and the usual grains are cultivated. Dhers and Musalmáns of the Borah class weave coarse cloth, and the potters of Thán have a name throughout Káthiáwár for the excellence of their work. Lakhtar is one of the 'third-class' Káthiáwár States, and the ruler entered into the usual engagements in 1807. The present (1876-77) chief is Thákur Karan Sinhjí, a Hindu of the Jhála Rájput caste. He is thirty-two years of age, and administers his State in person. Estimated gross revenue, £7500; tribute of £735 is paid jointly to the British Government and to the Nawáb of Junágarh. The family of the chief holds no title authorizing adoption, but the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. There are 2 schools in the State, with a total of 205 pupils.

Lakhtar (*Luctor*).—Chief town of Lakhtar State, Káthiáwár Political Agency, Bombay; situated on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway line; 13 miles north of Wadhwán, and 376 miles from Bombay. Lat. 22° 51′ N., long. 71° 50′ 10″ E.

Laki.—*Tahsíl* of Bannu District, Punjab, lying between 32° 16′ and 32° 51′ N. lat., and between 70° 25′ 15″ and 71° 18′ 45″ E. long., and comprising the southern portion of the basin drained by the Kuram and the Tochi. Area, 1165 square miles; pop. (1868), 62,900; persons per square mile, 53; number of villages, 151; area under cultivation, 242,790 acres, of which 10,609 are irrigated.

Laki.—Municipal town in Bannu District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Lat. 32° 36′ 45″ N., long. 70° 57′ E.; pop. (1868), 2740, consisting of 881 Hindus and 1859 Muhammadans. Situated on the right bank of the Gambíla, 32 miles from Edwardesábád. The original town occupied the opposite bank of the river; but when the Síkhs took possession of the District they selected the present site for a fort, round which a *bázár* rapidly sprang up. The old town being unhealthy and infested by swarms of mosquitoes, the inhabitants removed in a body to the new quarter in 1864. *Tahsíli*, police station, charitable dispensary, *dák* bungalow, *sarái*, school-house, post office. Considerable trade in grain and other country produce; large exports of food-stuffs down the Indus to Derá Ismáil Khán, Derá Ghází Khán, and Sukkur (Sakhar). Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £146, or 8¼d. per head of population (4368) within municipal limits.

Laki.—Mountain range and village in Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind.—*See* LAKHI.

Laki.—Town in Shikárpur District, Sind.—*See* LAKHI.

Lakshmantirtha.—Tributary of the Káveri (Cauvery), in Southern India; rises in the Western Gháts in the Province of Coorg, and flows north-east into Mysore State, through the District of Mysore, to join the Káveri at Sagarkatte. It is a perennial stream, and much used for irrigation in Mysore, being crossed by 7 dams, which give water to channels 126 miles in length, yielding a revenue of £3381. The Hanagod dam alone takes off 335 cubic feet of water per second, and irrigates 13,400 acres.

Lakshmeswar.—Town in Miráj State, Bombay. Lat. 15° 7′ 10″ N., long. 75° 30′ 40″ E.; pop. (1872), 10,819.

Lakshmipur. — *Ghát* or pass in Vizagapatam District, Madras, leading from the low country *viâ* Parvatipur into Jáipur (Jeypore); height about 3000 feet above sea level. Lat. 19° 6′ N., long. 83° 20′ E.

Lakshmipur (*Lakhipur*).—Village in the south of Goálpára District, Assam. Lat. 26° 2′ 5″ N., long. 90° 20′ 50″ E.; near the north foot of the Gáro Hills. The residence of the wealthy *zamíndár* of Mechpára, who maintains an efficient girls' school, and contributes largely to a charitable dispensary; also a depôt of the timber trade with Bengal.

Lakshmipur (*Lakhipur*).—Village in the east of Cáchár District, Assam, at the confluence of the Chirí river with the Barák. A *thánd* or police station, and the chief centre of trade with the State of Manipur. The *bázár* is frequented by Manipurís and other hillmen, who bring down cotton, caoutchouc, and bees-wax, to barter for salt, iron tools, dried fish, and betel-nuts.

Lakvalli.—Village in Kádúr District, Mysore. Lat. 13° 42′ 40″ N., long. 75° 41′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871), 1128. Has given its name to a *táluk* with headquarters at Yedehalli. Area of *táluk*, 540 square miles, of which 42 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 29,959, consisting of 27,830 Hindus, 1979 Muhammadans, 49 Jains, and 101 Christians; land revenue (1874-75), £7082, or 5s. 1d. per cultivated acre. In the south are the BABA BUDAN MOUNTAINS. Products—coffee, teak timber, rice, areca-nut, and sugar-cane.

Lálatpur.—District, *tahsíl*, and town, North-Western Provinces.—*See* LALITPUR.

Lálbágh.—Subdivision of Murshidábád District (called also the City of Murshidábad Subdivision), Bengal, lying between 24° 6′ 45″ and 24° 23′ N. lat., and between 88° 3′ 15″ and 88° 32′ 45″ E. long. Area, 357 square miles; villages, 718; houses, 51,874; pop. (1872), 213,595, of whom 143,822 were Hindus, 60,694 Muhammadans, 201 Christians, and 8878 'others.' Average number of persons per square mile, 598; villages per square mile, 2·01; persons per village, 297; houses per square mile, 145; inmates per house, 4·1. This Subdivision comprises the 5 police circles (*thánás*) of Asánpur, Mánullábázár, Sháhnagar, Nalhátí, and Rámpur Hát.

Lál Bakyá.—Tributary of the Bághmati river in Tirhut, Bengal. It joins the main stream near Adauri. Flat-bottomed boats can get up as far as Murpá in the rains.

Lál-darwáza (*'Red Door'*).—Mountain pass across the Siwálik range, between the Districts of Dehra Dún and Saháranpur, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 13′ N., long. 77° 58′ E.; elevation above sea, 2935 feet.

Lálganj.—Important river mart on the east bank of the Gandak in Hájípur Division, Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; 12 miles north-west of Hájípur town. Lat. 25° 51′ 45″ N., long. 85° 12′ 50″ E. The *bázár* lies on the low land adjoining the river, but is protected from inundation by the Gandak embankments. Its importance as a trading centre led to Lálganj being selected in 1875 as a point for the registration of river traffic; the total river-borne trade for the first quarter of that year was £36,935. Principal exports—hides, oil-seeds, saltpetre; imports—food grains (chiefly rice), salt, and piece-goods. The shipping *ghát* lies a mile to the south of the town, and is called Basanta. Roads to Sáhibganj, Muzaffarpur, and Hájípur. Pop. (1872), 12,338, namely, 10,853 Hindus, 1463 Muhammadans, and 22 'others.' Municipal revenue (1872), £374; rate of taxation, 7¼d. per head of population within municipal limits. Police station, several schools, post office, distillery.

Lalganj.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Rái Bareli District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Rái Bareli *tahsíl*, on the east by Salon, on the south by Fatehpur District in the North-Western Provinces, and on the west by Purwa *tahsíl* in Unao. This *tahsíl* comprises the 3 *parganás* of Dálmau, Sareni, and Khíron; total area, 469 square miles, of which 238 are cultivated. Pop. (1869) 268,601, namely, 259,144 Hindus and 9457 Muhammadans; number of males, 133,253, and females, 135,348; number of villages, 584.

Lalganj.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; situated 6 miles south-west of Dálmau, on the road from Bareli to Bhitári Ghát in Fatehpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 9′ 50″ N., long. 81° 0′ 49″ E. A flourishing market town, with a population (1869) of 2602. Average daily value of market sales, about £471.

Laliad.—One of the petty States of Jhaláwár in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue (1876), £285, of which £36 is paid as tribute to the British Government.

Laling.—Fort in Khandesh District, Bombay.—*See* DHULIA.

Lálitpur.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 24° 9′ 30″ and 25° 14′ N. lat., and between 78° 12′ 20″ and 79° 2′ 15″ E. long. Area, 1947 square miles; population in 1872, 212,661 persons. Lálitpur is the Southern District of the Jhánsi Division. It is bounded on the north and west by the river

Betwa; on the south-west by the river Naráyan; on the south by the Vindhyáchal Gháts and Ságar (Saugor) District of the Central Provinces; on the south-east and east by Orchha State and the river Dhasán; and on the east and north-east by the river Jamuni. The administrative headquarters are at the TOWN OF LALITPUR.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Lálitpur forms a portion of the hill country of Bundelkhand. Its general appearance is that of an undulating plain, bounded on the south by the Vindhyán range, and sloping gradually northward, till it descends by a series of low ridges into the valleys of the Betwa and the Jamuni, whose streams unite to form its northern limit. In the two hilly tracts to the north and south, the soil consists of a poor red gravel, the detritus of the underlying rocks; but on the central tableland, and in isolated valleys elsewhere, there are wide patches of black alluvial soil, known here as *motí*, but elsewhere as *már*. The plain has a general elevation of about 1500 feet above the level of the sea, and is broken by numerous detached hills and peaks, most of which are mere bosses of crystalline rock, overgrown with thick jungle. To the north, these hills run together, forming low wooded ranges, which finally dip into the deep valley of the Betwa. The whole District is traversed or surrounded by considerable rivers, which take their rise in the Vindhyán chain, and flow in a general northerly direction to join the main channel of the Jumna (Jamuná). It is also minutely intersected by a network of smaller streams, which drain off the surface water through converging ravines with excessive rapidity, and so contribute to impoverish the soil; while, in times of heavy rain, they pour their swollen torrents too suddenly into the larger channels, and carry away before them roads, banks, and bridges. Several artificial lakes and tanks have been constructed in past times, the largest being Tálbahat, among the northern hills, which covers an area of 453 acres. Unfortunately these are of little service in irrigating the arid tableland of Lálitpur, as the porous nature of the embankments causes them to absorb great quantities of the water which they were designed to retain. There is little cultivation in the District, and that of a poor class. A very large proportion of the area is covered with forest jungle. The villages are scattered thinly over the plain, and many of them have been deserted. The general aspect is one of poverty and indolence, while the people seem little inclined to make any effort for the development of their resources. No District of the North-Western Provinces has so sterile a soil as Lálitpur; and in none is the future condition of the land and its inhabitants a matter for graver consideration.

History.—The earliest inhabitants of Lálitpur whom tradition commemorates were the aboriginal tribe of Gonds, traces of whom still exist in the temples which crown the peaks of the Vindhyán range;

while a remnant of the people themselves is to be found in a few scattered villages upon its slopes. After the Aryan immigration, they appear to have adopted a form of the Hindu religion; and the high civilisation which they once attained is attested both by their architectural works and their splendid reservoirs for purposes of irrigation. They were succeeded by the Chandel princes of Máhoba, whose history has been briefly related in connection with the Districts of BANDA and HAMIRPUR. After the fall of the Chandels in the end of the 12th century, the country became subject to several petty princes, independent of the Muhammadans at Delhi, till the irruption of the Bundelas in the 14th century. Those warlike southern adventurers established themselves first in the District of JHANSI, and gradually spread their authority over the whole region which still bears their name. The modern District of Lálitpur formed part of the Bundela State of Chánderi, whose Rájás were descendants of the great chieftain Rudra Pratáp. Nine princes of his line reigned in Chánderi from 1602 to 1788, with little interference from the Delhi court, until, in the time of Rám Chánd the ninth, the Marhattás, whose interposition in the affairs of Bundelkhand has been narrated in the article on Bánda, first gained a footing in the principality. Their authority, however, was here much less durable than elsewhere, and the son of Rám Chánd was permitted to succeed to the greater portion of his father's dominions in 1800. Within two years, this prince was murdered at the instigation of a vassal, and his brother, Múr Pahlád, was placed upon the throne. He proved a dissolute and inefficient ruler, totally unable to curb his vassal Thákurs, who, hereditary freebooters by training and disposition, made constant plundering expeditions into the territories of neighbouring princes, until at last, in 1811, their incursions on the villages of Gwalior provoked Sindhia to measures of retaliation. The Mahárájá sent an army to capture Chánderi, under his partisan leader, Colonel Jean Baptiste; on whose approach Múr Pahlád fled precipitately to Jhánsi, leaving the defence of his capital to his generals. After a determined resistance, Chánderi was taken, and Tálbahat soon afterwards surrendered. Sindhia then assumed the government, and appointed Colonel Baptiste as its administrator. The *jágírs* were restored to their former owners, 31 villages being assigned for the support of Rájá Múr Pahlád. For fifteen years this arrangement worked smoothly; but in 1829, the native Bundela turbulence showed itself once more in an insurrection, headed by the former Rájá. Colonel Baptiste again returned, and an agreement was entered into by which the Chánderi State was divided, one-third being retained by Múr Pahlád, and two-thirds falling to the share of Sindhia. Even in these restricted dominions, Múr Pahlád continued to have frequent quarrels with his subordinate chieftains until his death in 1842. He was suc-

ceeded by his son, Mardan Sinh. Two years later, after the battle of Mahárájpur, Sindhia ceded to the British Government all his share of the Chánderi State, as a guarantee for the maintenance of the Gwalior Contingent. The territory so acquired was formed into a District, under the stipulation that the sovereignty of the Mahárájá and the rights of the inhabitants should be respected. This arrangement continued in force until the outbreak of the Mutiny. Mardan Sinh, known as the Rájá of Bánpur, had for some time considered himself aggrieved by the withholding of certain honours; and by his advice, the Bundela chiefs rose in rebellion in June 1857. The Rájá himself occupied the passes to the south, and entered into communication with the mutineers at Jhánsi. On the 12th of June, the 6th Gwalior Regiment mutinied, and its officers were forced to fly. Quarrels of the usual type then broke out between the mutineers and the Rájá of Bánpur; but after a short time, the latter succeeded in making his authority good, and many native officials in the Government service took posts under him. Plundering of course went on with the utmost alacrity. The Rájá even extended his rule into the northern portions of Ságar (Saugor) District, which he held until the arrival of Sir Hugh Rose's force in January 1858. On the 3rd of March in that year, the British army succeeded in forcing the passes leading into the plains of Lálitpur, and the Rájá fell back towards Bánpur and Tálbahat. The District was then partially pacified; but before the work could be completed, the revolt at Gwalior compelled the withdrawal of our troops, and the whole Chánderi country fell once more into the hands of the rebels. It was not till the month of October that Lálitpur was finally recovered, and even then only after a desperate resistance. Throughout the whole of this troubled period, it is noticeable that the Bundela Thákurs themselves were in the forefront of disaffection, revolting long before the mutiny of the troops at Lálitpur, and remaining hostile after the main centres of rebellion had been effectually reduced. They are in fact a body of half-savage chieftains, accustomed for centuries to a state of perpetual feud, and little adapted for the regular industrial life which the Government is endeavouring to render possible. Since the Mutiny, Lálitpur has been regularly organized as a British District, and has been free from any of those greater social disturbances which marked its earlier history. It has, however, been subject to the natural calamities of famine and pestilence, which have combined with the ravages of the Mutiny to impoverish still further its sterile soil, and to lessen by death or emigration its scanty population.

Population.—Lálitpur exhibits in the highest degree that decrease of inhabitants which is noticeable throughout the whole of Bundelkhand after the famine of 1868-69. The Census of 1865 gave the total population as 248,146. At the Census of 1872, the numbers

had fallen to 212,661, showing a loss of 35,485 persons, or 14·31 per cent. This large depopulation must be attributed partly to the deaths by starvation and disease during the famine of 1868-69, but partly, also, to the exodus of labourers which has taken place to more favoured tracts. The returns also bear witness to the backward state of the District by the paucity of villages and houses. There were 750 villages in 1865, and only 646 in 1872; while the houses at the former date numbered 55,148, and at the latter, 46,773. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile in 1865, 127; in 1872, 109; villages per square mile in 1872, 0·3; persons per village, 476; houses per square mile, 24; persons per house, 4·5. Classified according to sex, there were (exclusive of non-Asiatics), in 1872—males, 111,625; females, 101,003. Classified according to age, there were, under 15 years—males, 44,789; females, 38,613; total, 83,402, or 41·18 per cent. With regard to religious divisions, this District, like the remainder of Bundelkhand, is essentially Hindu; as many as 207,788, or 97·73 per cent. of the inhabitants, professing some form of Hinduism; while the Musalmáns number only 4840, or 2·27 per cent. of the total population. Of the four great classes into which Hindus are divided, the Bráhmans number 20,657 persons, and form a large proportion of the cultivators. The Rájputs number 20,985, amongst whom the Jajháriyas are the most numerous clan; but the Bundelas, who still retain much of their old supremacy, are socially and politically the most important. They are a turbulent and aggressive race, averse to labour, who formerly lived by plunder, and now exist as a sort of feudal nobility, surrounded by numerous retainers, and heavily indebted to the money-lenders. Their estates are for the most part mortgaged, and they are too indolent to take any pains to improve them. The trading classes, or Banias, number 11,356 souls, many of whom are Jains, and they are the most active and money-making class in the District. The great body of the population belongs to the clans enumerated in the Census returns as 'other castes.' Of these there are 154,688. The principal subdivisions are the Chamárs (25,118), Lodhas (21,747), Káchhís (19,281), and Ahírs (19,190). The aboriginal races are represented by a few Gonds in the southern *parganás*, and about 10,000 Sahárivas, scattered all over the District in the thickly wooded tracts. The latter are a very degraded type of humanity, subsisting till lately on the produce of the jungle, and popularly described as more like monkeys than men. LALITPUR has a population of 8976, and TALBAHAT 4410; but with these exceptions, no town contains more than 3000 inhabitants.

Agriculture.—Out of a total area amounting to 1947 square miles, only 366 square miles (or less than one-fifth) were under tillage in 1872.

The principal crops are wheat, gram, barley, the coarser sorts of millet, pulses of various kinds, and other inferior food grains. Cotton is grown in sufficient quantities to supply local wants; but there is no surplus for export. The crops are almost entirely dependent upon the rainfall, except on the soil known as *motí*. Accordingly, the *rabí* or spring harvest is very small, amounting to only 29 per cent. of the total out-turn; while the *kharíf* or autumn harvest yields 71 per cent. Irrigation is little practised, not more than one-tenth of the cultivated area being artificially watered. Irrigation is carried on by means of wells fitted with the Persian wheel, which supplied 22,222 acres in 1867. On the red soil of the hilly tract no cold-weather crops can be grown at all without artificial water supply; yet the people are very slow to avail themselves even of existing advantages. Rotation of crops is almost unknown, but land lies fallow for long periods, except where the rich black *motí* soil prevails. Manuring is generally practised in the case of all the more important products. Lálitpur has not escaped the common plague of *káns* grass, which throughout all Bundelkhand has thrown many villages out of cultivation. The unsatisfactory condition of the peasantry is evinced by the squalid appearance of their homesteads, and the carelessness of their personal attire. Ten acres form the average farm held with rights of occupancy, and seven acres the ordinary holding of a tenant-at-will. The latter, who form the most numerous class, are almost without exception heavily in debt to the village banker. Rents are usually fixed in proportion to the crops. The average rates are—for irrigated black soil, on two-crop lands, 8s.—on one-crop lands, 6s.; for irrigated red soil on two-crop lands, 6s.—on one-crop lands, 5s.; for unirrigated soil, black, 3s. 6d.—mixed, 2s. 6d.—red, 1s. 3d. By the last Census, the agricultural population is set down at 109,242 souls. The labourers belong to all castes, and are generally paid in grain. Non-agricultural wages are reported as follows:—Coolies, 1½d. to 3d. per diem: smiths, carpenters, masons, tailors, etc.—first-class, 6d.; second-class, 4½d. Lálitpur has not participated in the general rise of wages which has taken place throughout the greater part of Bundelkhand during the last twenty years, these rates being the same as those current in 1858; the exception is probably owing to the remoteness of the District, which has been little affected by the development of the railway system. Prices, however, have nearly doubled during the same period, so that the condition of the labouring classes cannot have improved. The following were the current rates of food grains at the time of the Census of 1865:—Wheat, 6s. 7d. per cwt.; gram, 7s. 2½d. per cwt.; pulse, 2s. 11d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Lálitpur is subject to loss of crops from blight, hailstorms, and the ravages of locusts; but its principal enemy is drought, to which the great famine of 1868-69 was mainly due. The

kharíf or autumn crop of 1868 failed almost entirely, through long-continued want of rain; and the *rabí* or spring harvest of 1869 produced only half its usual amount. Relief measures were commenced in August 1868; and during the next thirteen months an average number of 5599 persons were daily assisted with work, while 2781 persons received gratuitous relief at poorhouses. In February 1869, the total daily average of persons relieved was over 20,000. The maximum price of wheat and gram during the dearth was 7 *sers* the rupee, or about 16s. per cwt. Epidemics, as usual, followed in the wake of famine; cholera broke out in June 1869, and raged amongst the debilitated and starving people during the rainy season. Every effort was made to prevent actual starvation; yet 500 deaths were reported as due to that cause; and there can be little doubt that these figures do not by any means represent the real numbers. The total loss of inhabitants by death and emigration was enormous. As much as 76 per cent. of the people relieved were women and children, the majority of whom belonged to families whose male members had deserted them and gone off elsewhere as soon as the failure of the crops was generally anticipated. Even after the famine abated, distress continued for a considerable period, as there were not enough cultivators left to till the ground, and 41 per cent. of the cattle had been lost, 95,543 head out of a total stock amounting to 233,047 having died from starvation or other causes. Government endeavoured to alleviate these calamities by large advances for the purpose of buying seed and beasts; but much of the money so granted was really spent upon food to supply existing necessities, and the land was not restored to cultivation. The communications are insufficient to avert actual famine, and many portions of the District are in danger of isolation from floods. On the whole, in all seasons of scarcity the condition of Lálitpur must be considered specially critical.

Commerce and Trade.—As the food-stuffs raised in Lálitpur are only just sufficient even in favourable seasons to satisfy the home consumption, there is but little export trade; while in times of scarcity it becomes necessary to import considerable quantities of grain. The regular commerce is very small; the only out-going products being betel-leaves, clarified butter (*ghí*), lac, honey, wax, and forest produce; and the imported articles being chiefly salt, grain, sugar, cloth, and tobacco. The manufactures are unimportant, and belong entirely to the domestic type. The District is remote from all portions of the railway system. There is one fairly good through road between Jhánsi and Ságar (Saugor), having a line of 57 miles within this District; but its southern portion becomes impassable in the rainy season; and as it is the main channel by which grain is imported from the fertile Districts of the Central Provinces, its condition is by no means satis-

factory. The other roads are unmetalled, and in many cases unbridged, so that communications are often rendered impossible after heavy rains. The District does not contain any noticeable institutions, and there are no newspapers or printing-presses.

Administration.—In 1860-61, the total revenue amounted to £31,031, of which £14,513, or nearly one-half, was contributed by the land tax. The expenditure at the same date was £15,808. By 1870-71, the total receipts had increased to £34,677, of which £14,881 was made up by land revenue; while the expenditure had decreased to £10,321, or less than one-third of the receipts. The retrenchment was mainly effected in the items of Justice and Police. Lálitpur suffered, like other neighbouring Districts, from over-assessment during the native period; and the rates continued high before the Mutiny; but at present a much lighter settlement has been introduced, which will remain in force till 1888. The District is administered, on the non-regulation system, by a Deputy Commissioner, 1 Assistant and 2 extra-Assistant Commissioners, and 2 *tahsíldárs.* In 1870, they presided over 6 magisterial and 6 civil courts. There are 18 police stations, and the regular police force numbers 425 men, maintained at a cost of £6340, almost entirely from imperial funds. Besides these, the District contains 470 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), or 1 to every 505 inhabitants; but as they are partly paid by allowances of land and grain, their exact cost cannot be estimated. The total machinery for the protection of person and property accordingly consists of 895 men, giving 1 man to every 2·17 square miles and to every 237 of the population. The number of convictions for all offences in 1871 amounted to 268, or 1 in every 793 inhabitants. The Saháriyas, a clan of professional thieves, well known to the police throughout India, are natives of the District, and cause much trouble. In 1860, the jail contained a daily average of 197 inmates, or ·08 per cent. of the population. In that year, 634 prisoners were admitted; and in 1870, the admissions numbered 588. Education has during the last few years made great progress in Lálitpur. In 1860, there were 27 schools, attended by 677 pupils, and maintained at a cost of £182; by 1870, the number of schools had risen to 39, and that of pupils to 1254, while £613 were expended on instruction. The District is divided into 2 *tahsíls* and 7 *parganás.* The number of revenue-paying estates in 1871 was 641, owned by 4946 registered proprietors or coparceners, and paying a revenue of £14,881; each estate accordingly bore an average burden of £21, 18s., and each coparcener contributed an average share of £2, 16s. The District contains only 1 municipality, Lálitpur town. In 1875-76, its total income amounted to £872, and its expenditure to £702. The incidence of municipal taxation was at the rate of 1s. 4d. per head of population.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Lálitpur is distinguished by a

continuous heat, though the extremes of temperature are not so marked as in the Upper Provinces. The annual rainfall averages 40 inches; in 1867-68, it rose as high as 59·8 inches, while in the disastrous season of 1868-69, it fell to 13·0. The prevailing diseases are dysentery and malarious fevers of the type so common in Bundelkhand. The total number of deaths reported in 1871 amounted to 2881, or 11·61 to every 1000 inhabitants, of which one-half were due to fever. Snake-bites and the attacks of wild animals are set down as causing 76 deaths. Cattle-disease occurs yearly in a mild form; and rinderpest, combined with foot-and-mouth disease, appeared as an epidemic in 1871. The natives consider it inevitable, and take no measures for its suppression.

Lálitpur.—Western *tahsíl* of Lálitpur District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 1059 square miles, of which only 193 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 118,964; land revenue, £7755; total Government revenue, £8727; rental paid by cultivators, £15,510; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2⅛d.

Lálitpur.—Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Lálitpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 24° 41′ 30″ N., long. 78° 27′ 50″ E.; pop. (1872), 8976, consisting of 8052 Hindus and 924 Musalmáns. Lies on the Jhánsi and Ságar (Saugor) road, close to the west bank of the Sahjád Nadi. The inhabitants are chiefly agriculturists, and the population has been decreasing steadily of late years. Well-built, whitewashed masonry houses give picturesqueness to the main streets; side streets consist of mere tortuous alleys, going to decay in many places. Excellent modern *bázár*, built by a late Government officer, forms a good centre for the town. Buddhist remains are built into the walls. *Tahsíli*, jail, police station, Government charitable dispensary. For Mutiny narrative, see LALITPUR DISTRICT. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £872; from taxes, £599, or 1s. 4d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Lálmái Hills.—A low range in Hill Tipperah District, Bengal, nowhere exceeding 100 feet in height; about 5 miles west of Comillah (Kumillá). Extend 10 miles north and south, with an average breadth of about 2 miles. Densely wooded, and cultivated by the Tipperahs on the *júm* system of nomadic tillage. Brown iron-ore (hydrated sesquioxide) is found, but not abundantly; yields 38½ per cent. of iron. The Rájá of Tipperah, to whom the Lálmái with the Maynámatí Hills were sold for £2100 by the British Government, has built a house for the use of Europeans on the highest elevation, known as the Maynámatí Hill. An old fort, with statues and bas-reliefs, was found buried in the jungle. The snake figures in the sculptures, and the presence of the pig also indicate an aboriginal or non-Hindu origin. The range takes its name from a princess, Lálmái, of the royal house of Tipperah.

Lambia.—Mountain pass in Bashahr State, Punjab, over the Himálayan range bounding Kunáwar to the south. Seldom employed, on account of the cracks and sinking snow, except during the summer months. Lat., according to Thornton, 31° 16′ N., long. 78° 20′ E.; elevation above sea level, about 17,000 feet.

Landaur (*Landour*).—Hill cantonment and sanitarium in Dehra Dún District, North-Western Provinces; forms at present a single municipality with Mussooree (Masuri), though originally distinct. Lat. 30° 27′ 30″ N., long. 78° 8′ 30″ E.; situated on the slopes of the Himálayas, 7459 feet above sea level. A convalescent station for European soldiers was established in 1827, the average number of invalids being about 200. The staff comprises a commandant, surgeon, and station staff officer. The united towns have a permanent Anglo-Indian population of about 300 persons, largely increased by the influx of visitors from the plains during the hot season. Two Protestant and one Roman Catholic church, post office, two hotels, numerous schools and boarding-houses. Headquarters of the District officials during the summer. For municipality and further details, see MUSSOOREE.

Landaura.—Town in Sahāranpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 48′ N., long. 77° 58′ 15″ E.; pop. (1872), 5023, consisting of 3534 Hindus and 1489 Muhammadans. Lies on the open plain, 5 miles south-east of Roorkee (Rúrki) and 28 miles east of Saháranpur. Village school; post office; old fort, surrounded by a ditch, now converted into a receptacle for the sewage of the town. Inhabitants chiefly Gújars, clansmen of the notorious chieftain Rájá Rámdayál Sinh. The village was burnt for excesses committed during the Mutiny.

Landí Khána (or *Landí Kotál*).—The most difficult part of the KHAIBAR PASS, Afghánistán; about 23 miles distant from Kadam, the eastern entrance, and about 7 miles from the western entrance. Elevation of Landí Khána village (lat. 34° 3′ N., long. 71° 3′ E.), 2488 feet; highest point of the pass, the Landí Kotál or fort, 3373 feet. This is one of the principal stages in the pass, and has been used as a halting-place for the different British forces which have passed through the Kháibar.

Langái.—River in the south-east of Sylhet District, Assam, which rises beyond the frontier, and, flowing northwards, forms the boundary between the Lusházi Hills and the State of Hill Tipperah. It ultimately falls into the Kusiára branch of the Surmá or Barák near the village of Karimganj. It is nowhere navigable for large boats, but the channel is kept open by the Forest Department for the transport of timber. On its banks are forests of *jaral* (Lagerstrœmia reginæ) and *nágeswar* (Mesua ferrea), forming the most important forest reserve in Sylhet. The Langái has also given its name to a valuable elephant *mahál* or

hunting-ground, reserved for the operations of the Commissariat *khedá*. Discoveries of coal have (1876) been reported on its banks.

Langrin (or *Lyng-kin*).—Petty State in the Khási Hills, Assam, presided over by a *siem* or chief called U Bor. Pop. (1872), 1867; revenue, £96, chiefly derived from dues levied on lime. The products are rice, millet, chillies, turmeric; limestone is largely quarried, and coal has been found.

Langúliyá (*Langala*, Sanskrit; *Nágula*, Telugu—'a plough').—River formed by the junction of three streams rising in the Gondwána Mountains, near Kaláhandi, Central Provinces. It flows south-east across the territory of Jáipur (Jeypore), and into the plains of the Madras Presidency. In the last 30 miles of its course, the Langúliyá forms the boundary between Vizagapatam and Ganjám Districts, entering the sea below Chicacole (in the latter District), where it is crossed on the Great Trunk Road by a fine bridge of 24 arches, much injured by the cyclone of 1876. The whole course of the river is about 140 miles; and on its banks are the towns of Singapúr, Birada, and Ráyagadda in Jáipur, and Parvatipúr, Palkonda, and Chicacole in the plains. Its principal tributaries are the Salúr and Makkuva. The Langúliyá irrigates Chicacole *táluk*, Palkonda Division, and part of the Salúr and Bobbili estates. Its rapid current makes navigation difficult, but during the floods bamboos are floated down from the hill forests.

Langúr. — Ruined hill fort in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 29° 55′ N., and long. 78° 40′ E., on a conical hill forming part of one of the southern Himálayan ranges. Very difficult of access, and, from a military point of view, quite valueless, there being no water. Elevation above sea, 6401 feet.

Lánjí.—Town in Bálághát District, Central Provinces; 40 miles east of Búrhá. Lat. 21° 30′ N., long. 80° 35′ E. Lying in low ground dotted with tanks, and bounded on the north by dense jungle, in which stands an old temple dedicated to Mahádeva, surrounded apparently by the remains of the original town. The fort, now out of repair, but once a strong place, was probably constructed by the Gonds, *circa* 1700. On the edge of the moat round it, a temple has been built to Lánkjkái (the goddess Kálí), from whom the town takes its name. Lánjí has a good Government school, and a police station; and the District post connects it with the imperial postal lines. Pop. (1877), 2075.

Lanktharái.—Hill range in the State of Hill Tipperah, Bengal; runs through the State in a northerly direction, gradually disappearing in the plains of Sylhet. The principal peaks are—Pheng Pui, 1581; and Sim Basia, 1544 feet. These hills, like the other Tipperah ranges, are covered with dense bamboo jungle and huge forest timber.

Láo-ber-sát. — Mountain range in the District of the Khási and Jáintia Hills, Assam; elevation of highest peak above sea level, 5400 feet.

Láo-boh.—Mountain range in the District of the Khási and Jáintia Hills, Assam; elevation of highest peak above sea level, 4464 feet.

Láo-syn-nia.—Mountain range in the Khási Hills, Assam; highest peak, 5775 feet above sea level.

Láphá.—Chiefship in the north of Biláspur District, Central Provinces, said to date from 936 A.D. Contains 55 villages; area, 272 square miles, of which about 12,000 acres are cultivated. The chief is a Kanwár.

Láphágarh.—Hill fortress in Biláspur District, Central Provinces; 25 miles north of Biláspur. Lat. 26° 41′ N., long. 91° 9′ E. Crowning the Láphá Hill, which rises 3500 feet above sea level, with an open area on the top of 3 square miles, now overgrown with underwood. On this cool and pleasant plateau the Haihai Bánsí rulers of Chhattísgarh had one of their earliest seats, till they left it, over a thousand years ago, for their capital of Ratanpur. Much of the fort wall, constructed of large slabs of hewn stone, still remains in excellent preservation.

Larawad.—One of the petty States in the Bhopál Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. Area, 30 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 2900; estimated revenue, £700. Tribute is paid of £100 to Dhar and Dewás, in the proportion of two-thirds to Dhar and one-third to Dewás. The State will lapse to Dhar and Dewás on the death of the present chief, Rám Chandra Ráo, who was born about 1823.

Lárkána. — Sub-District of Shikárpur Collectorate, Upper Sind, lying between lat. 27° 16′ 30″ and 28° 4′ 30″ N., and between long. 67° 15′ and 68° 32′ 30″ E. Area, 2241 square miles; population in 1872, 234,575. Bounded on the north by the Frontier District and the territory of the Khán of Khelát; east by the Indus and the Sukkur (Sakhar) and Shikárpur Sub-District; south and west by Mehar, Khelát, and the Khirthar range. This Sub-District is divided into the 5 *táluks* of Lárkána, Kambar, Rato Dero, Labdarya, and Sijáwal. With the exception of the western portion, which borders on the Khirthar Mountains, the general aspect of the country is singularly flat and uninteresting. Those parts of Lárkána lying between the Indus and the western Nárá, and again between the latter stream and the Ghár Canal, are one dead level of rich alluvial soil, well cultivated, and, on the whole, thickly populated. In some places stretch vast plains of *kalar* or salty soil, while in the vicinity of the Indus broken patches of sandy waste or low jungles of tamarisk and *bábul* occur. Canals are numerous, and afford great facilities for irrigation. The principal Government canals are the Western Nárá, 30 miles long, and 100 feet wide at its mouth; the Ghár, 22 miles long and 80 feet wide; the Naurang, a continuation of the Ghár canal, 21 miles long and 90 feet wide; the Bire-ji-kúr, 27 miles long and 48 feet wide; and the Edenwáh, 23 miles long. Of the *zamíndári*

or private canals, the Sháh-ji-kúr and Dáte-ji-kúr, both 22 miles long, and the Mír, 20 miles long, are the most important. The Western Nára, navigable by boats from May to September, is very tortuous in its course, and may be regarded as a river artificially improved. After flowing through portions of the Lárkána, Rato Dero, and Labdarya *táluks*, it enters the Mehar Sub-Districts, and falls eventually into the Manchhar Lake. The Ghár, which is also supposed to be a natural channel, is very winding, broad, and deep, with level banks. It flows through the Lárkána and Rato Dero *táluks*, and enters Mehar by the Nasirábád *táluk*. The Government forests in Lárkána cover an area of from 9000 to 10,000 acres. The chief trees are the *ním*, *sissu*, *bábul*, *pípal*, and *karil*. The tamarisk is occasionally met with of a large growth; it is very plentiful, and valuable as firewood. The principal minerals are coarse salt and saltpetre. Alum and sulphur occur in the hills to the west. The wild animals include the tiger, hog, antelope, hyæna, jackal, wolf, fox, porcupine, and ibex.

Population.—The total population of Lárkána Sub-District was returned in 1856 at 148,903; by 1872, the number of inhabitants had risen to 234,575, of whom 202,008 were Muhammadans, 32,381 Hindus, and 186 of other nationalities. Average of persons per square mile, 105. The chief Musalmán tribes are the Chándias, Jamális, Abras, and Játs. The first are still numerous, and it is from them that this part of the country obtained the name of Chánduka or Chándko. The Jamális are a Baluch race living on the borders of the desert; the Abras inhabit the south-west of Lárkána; the Játs are found dispersed all over the Sub-District, and are mainly cultivators and cattle-breeders. The chief towns are LARKANA (the headquarters), RATO DERO, and KAMBAR. Among the few antiquities of Lárkána, the principal are the old fort in Lárkána town, the tomb of Sháhal Muhammad Kalhora (built about 150 years ago), and of his minister Sháh Bahárah. Sháhal Muhammad was the grandson of Adam Sháh, the celebrated *fákir* (religious mendicant), whose descendants eventually became monarchs of Sind.

Agriculture.—Lárkána contains a portion of one of the finest alluvial tracts in the whole Province, viz. that lying between the Indus, the Nárá, and the Ghár. There is, perhaps, no part of Sind so admirably suited for irrigation; and the soil is so productive as to have procured for this tract the name of the 'Garden of Sind.' Three principal crops are raised during the year, viz.—*peshras*, sown in March and reaped in July; *kharíf*, sown in June and July, and reaped in November and December; and *rabí*, sown in September and October, and reaped in April and May. The *peshras* crop includes cotton, sugar-cane, and vegetables; the *kharíf*—*joár*, *bájra*, *til*, rice, indigo, pulses, and hemp; the *rabí*—wheat, barley, oil-seeds, gram, peas, and tobacco. Mangoes,

plantains, dates, limes, pomegranates, and other fruits are grown extensively. The first revenue settlement of the Lárkána *táluk* was made by Major Goldney, in 1847; it was for seven years, and expired in 1853-54. The rates were heavy, *rabí* land being assessed as high as 5 rupees 1 anna (10s. 1½d.) per acre, and *kharíf* and *peshras* lands at 3 rupees 1 anna (6s. 1½d.). In 1855-56, the rates in Lárkána and Kambar were reduced according as the cultivation was by wheel or well. The latest revenue settlement dates from 1870-71 and 1871-72, for ten and nine years respectively. The average rate on assessed cultivable land in Lárkána is now 2s. 6$\frac{3}{10}$d. per acre.

Tenures.—Before the conquest of the Province by the British in 1843, this part of Sind was known as the Chándko *parganá*, and the ownership of the entire lands in each village seems then to have been vested in the *zamíndárs* and their heirs in perpetuity. They cultivated a portion themselves, leaving the rest to men who appear to have possessed a hereditary right to occupy, as the lands could not be taken from them at pleasure; but they paid *lápo*, or rent, to the *zamíndár*, generally in kind, at so many *kásas* per *bíghá*. Besides this there was a fee called *wájah zamíndárí*, claimed by the head-man, and leviable on the produce of the lands. When a portion of the land was sold, the purchaser became entitled to the *lápo*, but the *wájah* was still given to the head-man. The *zamíndár*, in fact, only transacted business with Government or the contractor, and he made his own collections from the tenants. The villagers paid him great respect, and his advice was generally acted upon in all the agricultural affairs of the community. The *jágír* land in this Sub-District, cultivable and uncultivable, comprises in all about 84,000 acres, of which Ghaibi Khán Chándia's estate in the Kambar *táluk* takes up 75,966 acres.

Natural Calamities.—Lárkána is subject to floods or *léts*, which at times cause great destruction to life and property. In 1874, the Kashmor flood, starting from the town of the same name in the Frontier District, conjointly with the Jhali *lét* originating in the Sukkur and Shikárpur Sub-District, inundated nearly 100,000 acres of waste and cultivated land, besides destroying in a greater or less degree 53 villages. Strong embankments or *bandhs* have been raised, but hitherto without any permanent effect.

Manufactures, etc.—The manufactures of Lárkána consist principally of coarse cotton cloth, salt, paper, working in metal, such as culinary utensils, etc., shoes, native saddles, and other leather work. There is also a small paper manufactory at the town of Lárkána. Dyeing forms an important industry. The Sub-District carries on an extensive trade. The exports comprise grain of sorts, wool, cotton, and other agricultural products; the imports—English piece-goods, silks, and fruits. Lárkána town is one of the chief grain marts of Sind. The total length of roads

in the Sub-District is above 400 miles. The main road is that from Lárkána to Shikárpur, southwards to Mehar. There are 34 ferries, most of which cross the Indus or the West Nára Canal. Post offices at the towns of Lárkána, Kambar, and Rato Dero.

The *revenue* of the Deputy Collectorate in 1873-74 was £77,174; being £71,538 imperial and £5636 local, derived from the following sources:—Imperial—land tax, £63,627; *abkári* or excise, £1518; drugs and opium, £1010; stamps, £3358; salt, £937; registration, £284: Local—cesses on land and *sayer* revenue, £4176; percentage on alienated lands, £47; ferry funds, £733; fisheries, £662; fees and licences, £18. There are 3 municipalities in Lárkána, viz. LARKANA, RATO DERO, and KAMBAR. Their total revenue in 1874 was £2525. Dispensary at Lárkána town. The number of Government schools in 1873-74 was 15, with 976 pupils.

The average annual rainfall in Lárkána is returned at 5·17 inches. Fevers, rheumatism, and ophthalmia are prevalent.

Lárkána.—*Táluk* of Lárkána Deputy Collectorate, Sind. Area, 290 square miles; pop. (1872), 79,042; revenue in 1873-74, £27,388, being £25,540 imperial and £1848 local.

Lárkána. — Chief town and municipality of the Lárkána Deputy Collectorate, Shikárpur District, Sind; situated in lat. 27° 33′ N., and long. 68° 15′ E., on the south bank of the Ghár Canal; 40 miles south-west of Shikárpur, and 36 north-east of Mehar. The country surrounding Lárkána is fertile and populous, and perhaps the finest tract in the whole of Sind. The spacious walks, well laid out gardens, and luxuriant foliage, have gained for it the title of the 'Eden of Sind.' The principal buildings are the civil court, and the usual public offices, Deputy Collector's and travellers' bungalows, dispensary, 3 *bázárs*. In the time of the Tálpurs the fort served as an arsenal, and afterwards, under British rule, it was turned into an hospital and jail. The population in 1872 was returned at 10,643, of whom 5666 were Musalmáns and 4972 Hindus. Lárkána is one of the most important grain marts of Sind, and is famous for a species of rice called *sugdási*. Large local traffic in metals, cloth, and leather. The principal manufactures are cloth of mixed silk and cotton, coarse cotton cloth, metal vessels, and leather goods. The antiquities of Lárkána consist of the old fort already mentioned, and the tomb of Sháh Bahárah.

Larsaulí.—Northern *tahsíl* of Delhi District, Punjab; consisting of an alluvial plain, the southward continuation of the cis-Sutlej tract.

Lashkarpur.—Village in the south-west of Sylhet District, Assam, on the Kwahi river. Lat. 24° 16′ 25″ N., long. 91° 30′ 30″ E. It has a *thána* or police station, and is celebrated for several handicrafts. A little colony of Musalmáns manufacture *talwárs* or swords, and *dáos* or hill knives, skilfully damascening the blades with silver and brass.

In the neighbourhood, lac is collected from the branches of the banian tree (Ficus indica), and worked up into a variety of elegant articles known as *pukálá* work. In some cases, the lac is tastefully inlaid with the blue feathers of the kingfisher, and with talc. Bracelets are also made of lac by Muhammadan women.

Laswári.—Village in Ulwar (Alwar) State, Rájputána. Lat. 27° 33′ 30″ N., long. 76° 54′ 45″ E. Famous as the scene of the great battle of the 1st November 1803, which destroyed the Marhattá power in India. The battle is thus described by Marshman:—'He (Lord Lake) had received an unfounded report that the Marhattá army was endeavouring to avoid him, and, with his usual impetuosity, started at midnight in search of it with his cavalry alone, leaving orders for the infantry to follow. He came up with the encampment of the enemy at daybreak on the 1st November, at the village of Laswari, and found them, as usual, entrenched in a formidable position, with their guns drawn up in the front. The general led his cavalry up in person to the attack, a fearful discharge of grape and double-headed shot mowed down column after column, and rendered the fiery valour of the troops useless. To prevent their utter extinction, the general was obliged to withdraw them from the conflict, to await the arrival of the infantry, who had marched 65 miles in the preceding forty-eight hours, and 25 miles since midnight. After a brief rest and a hasty meal, they were launched on the enemy's guns and battalions. The engagement was the severest in which the Company's troops had ever been engaged, not excepting that of Assaye. Sindhia's Sepoys fought as natives had never fought before. They defended their position to the last extremity, contesting every point inch by inch, and refusing to give way while a single gun remained in their possession. But they were at length overpowered, and lost their ammunition and camp equipage, together with 71 pieces of cannon. It was even reported that one-half their number was left on the field, killed or wounded. On the British side the casualties amounted to 824, one-fourth of which belonged to the 76th Regiment, who bore the brunt of the action.'

Láthi.—Native State within the Political Agency of Káthiáwár in Guzerat, Bombay, lying between 21° 41′ and 21° 45′ 30″ N. lat., and between 71° 23′ to 71° 32′ E. long. Estimated pop. (1875), 8300; number of villages, 8. The territory is hilly in parts, and the soil black. The climate is hot and dry, and fever is the most prevalent disease. The usual cereals, sugar-cane and cotton, are grown. The nearest port is Bhaunagar. Láthi is one of the Káthiáwár 'fourth-class' States. Its chiefs are descended from Sárangi, second brother of the founder of the Bhaunagar line. One of the Thákurs of Láthi wedded his daughter to Dámáji Gáekwár, and gave the Sub-division of Dámnagar in dowry, being exempted from tribute in return.

He now yearly offers a horse. In 1807, the Gáekwár was security for the Thákur's engagements to keep order in his territory. The present (1876-77) chief is Takht Sinhjí, a Hindu of the Gohel Rájput caste. He is thirty-four years old, and administers his State in person. He enjoys an estimated gross yearly revenue of £6061, and pays a tribute of £200 jointly to the Gáekwár of Baroda and the Nawáb of Junágarh, and maintains a military force of 117 men. The family of the chief hold no *sanad* authorizing adoption, but the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. There is 1 school, with 50 pupils.

Láthi.—Chief town of Láthi State, Káthiáwár, Bombay. Lat. 21° 43′ 20″ N., long. 71° 28′ 30″ E.

Lathia.—Village in Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces; distant from Zamánia 1 mile south-east. Contains a very ancient monolith column, 26 feet in height above the ground, with a richly carved capital. Two female figures, which originally surmounted it, now lie at the base.

Laun (*Loan*).—A fertile tract of country in Ráipur District, Central Provinces, east of Simga; occupying an area of about 800 square miles, with 423 villages. The tract is watered by the Seonáth and Mahánadi. West of the latter river, the land is generally well cultivated, producing large quantities of rice. To the east, the country consists of low hills, covered with bamboos and thatching grass, whence most of the villages of the District are supplied. Along the extreme eastern boundary, there are fine *sál* forests.

Laur.—The old name for one of the three Divisions of Sylhet District, Assam. The division of Gor or Sylhet proper was conquered by the Muhammadans in the 14th century, but Laur retained its independence until the time of the Mughal Emperor Akbar. The last Hindu Rájá of Laur, Gobind, was summoned to Delhi, and there became a Musalmán. His grandson, Abid Rezá, abandoned Laur, and built the town of Baniáchang in the beginning of the 18th century. It was not till the rule of Nawáb Alí Vardí Khán that the estate became subject to a money payment.

Láwa.—Agricultural town in Jhelum (Jhílam) District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 41′ 45″ N., long. 71° 58′ 30″ E.; pop. (1868), 5259, consisting of 258 Hindus, 4651 Muhammadans, 118 Síkhs, and 232 'others.' Situated near the western border of the District, a few miles north of the Salt Range and Mount Sukesar. Large Awán village, with numerous hamlets, but of no commercial importance.

La-wa-dí.—Revenue circle in the Angyí township, Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 105 square miles; slightly undulating in the west. The whole circle is naturally fertile, but a considerable portion was reduced to a swamp about 1825 by the silting up of one of the principal streams. Pop. (1877-78), 7829; gross revenue, £2991. There are 3 potteries in this circle.

La-ya.—Revenue circle in the Tsit-toung township, Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. The surface of the country is flat, and, except in the west and north-west, cultivated with rice. Pop. (1876), 3856; gross revenue, £2069.

Layádá.—Range of hills in Chutiá Nágpur Division, Bengal, running from east to west, and throwing out numerous rocky spurs into Singbhúm District.

Lay-dí-kan-hla.—Revenue circle in the Henzada township, Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. A large rice plain. Pop. (1876), 8101; gross revenue, £2386.

Layhla.—Revenue circle in Toung-gnú District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 3991; gross revenue, £793.

Lebong.—Mountain range in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces, forming part of the Himálayan system. Lat. 30° 20′ N., long. 80° 39′ E. It runs between the Biáns and Dharma valleys, and is crossed by a difficult pass, covered with snow throughout the year. The crest of the pass has an elevation of 18,942 feet above sea level.

Le-gnya.—Township in Mergui District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. It contains the two circles of Le-gnya and Bhútpyeng, with headquarters at Le-gnya. Le-gnya is a mountainous and forest-covered tract, but little cultivated. Pop. (1876), 3117, chiefly Malays, Siamese, and Chinese; gross revenue, £468.

Leh.—Chief town in Ladákh, Kashmír State, Punjab; situated about 3 miles from the northern bank of the Indus, at an elevation of 11,538 feet above sea level. Lat. 34° 10′ N., long. 77° 40′ E.; estimated pop. 4000. Leh stands in a small plain, between the river and a chain of mountains; a wall with conical and square towers surrounds the town, and runs up to the crest of the range. White-washed three-storied houses, with wooden balconies; conspicuous but simple palace of the late Rájá, deposed by Ghuláb Sinh of Kashmír. The streets are disposed without any order, and the houses are built contiguously. Fort about a mile south-west of town. Entrepôt for the trade between the Punjab and Chinese Tartary, being the principal mart for the shawl-wool imported from the latter country. Observatory.

Lehrá.—Small village and outwork of Pandaul indigo factory, Darbhangah District, Bengal; situated on the main road from Madhuban to Baherá. Small *bázár*. In the neighbourhood are three large tanks—one called Ghordaur, 2 miles long, but only containing water at one end. Sheo Sinh, an early Rájá of Tirhut, is said to have lived near this tank; and a space of about 4 acres, covered with bricks and jungle, is pointed out as the site of his palace.

Leiah.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Derá Ismáil Khán District, Punjab, lying between 30° 35′ 45″ and 31° 25′ N. lat., and between 70° 49′ and 71° 52′ 30″ E. long.; comprising the southern portion of the sparsely

inhabited and almost desert cis-Indus tract. Area, 2353 square miles; pop. (1868), 94,723; persons per square mile, 40·25; number of villages or townships, 105.

Leiah.—Municipal town in Derá Ismáil Khán District, Punjab, and headquarters of Leiah *tahsíl.* Lat. 30° 57′ 30″ N., long. 70° 58′ 20″ E.; pop. (1868), 17,033, consisting of 3726 Hindus, 13,151 Muhammadans, 30 Síkhs, and 126 'others.' Situated on the old left bank of the Indus, somewhat to the east of the present bed. Founded probably during the 16th century by Kamál Khán, a Baluch of the Mahráni family of Dera Ghazi Khan. His descendants ruled the surrounding country for about 200 years, having their capital at Leiah, till they were supplanted by the Kalhora kings of Sind. On the establishment of Muhammad Khán Sadozái in 1792, Leiah gave place to Mankera as capital of the new ruler. Under the Síkh Government, the town once more became the centre of administration for the neighbouring tract; and on the British occupation in 1849, it rose for a time to the rank of headquarters of a District. In 1861, however, the District was broken up, and Leiah, together with Bhakkar, became a part of Derá Ismáil Khán. Considerable trade in local produce; through traffic between Hindustán and the west. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £255, or 10¾d. per head of population (5686) within municipal limits.

Lek-htek.—Revenue circle in the Zaya township, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Consists partly of uplands, partly of plains subject to inundation towards the south from defective drainage. Pop. (1876), 3166, chiefly Talaings; land revenue, £684, and capitation tax, £324. The principal village is Ka-ma-wek.

Lek-pa-dan.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. A well-cultivated rice tract. Pop. (1876), 1867; land revenue, £239, and capitation tax, £182.

Lek-pa-dan.—Small revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 10,374; gross revenue, £2474. Chief product, rice.

Lek-pan-daing.—Revenue circle in the Meng-bra township, Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 1888; gross revenue, £687.

Lek-rai-dek.—Revenue circle in the Pa-doung township, Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 1877; gross revenue, £526.

Lek-wai-anouk.—Revenue circle in Sandoway District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 30 square miles, of which only 5 are cultivable. Pop. (1876), 1937, Arakanese; gross revenue, £436. Chief products—rice, tobacco, and sugar.

Lek-wai-ashe.—Revenue circle in Sandoway District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 155 square miles; pop. (1876),

2110; gross revenue, £387. Chief crops—rice, sesamum, and tobacco.

Lek-wai-kywon.—Revenue circle in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 3199; gross revenue, £488. The chief occupation of the inhabitants is felling and floating various kinds of timber to Tavoy for building purposes.

Le-mro (*'Four Towns'*).—River of British Burma. Its sources, which have not yet been explored, lie among the mountains which occupy the northern part of Arakan. It flows in a direction generally from north to south, and is joined by several large streams before it reaches the plains in Akyab District. It enters Hunter's Bay by numerous mouths, all inter-connected by tidal creeks.

Le-myet-hna.—Revenue circle in the Ta-pwon township, Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 7328; gross revenue, £1885.

Le-myet-hna, North.—Revenue circle in the township of the same name in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 19 square miles; pop. (1876), 5990; gross revenue, £1788. Hilly and forest-covered to the west; in the east are extensive plains. The headquarters town of Lye-myet-hna township is in this circle.

Le-myet-hna, South.—Revenue circle in the township of the same name in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 42 square miles, consisting for the most part of low hills, rising in height towards the west to the Arakan Yomas. Now includes the once independent circle of Ka-gnyeng-daing. Pop. (1876), 6064; gross revenue, £1181.

Le-myet-hna.—Township in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Bounded west by the Arakan Mountains, in places 1900 feet high, which send down their well-wooded spurs eastwards, leaving a line of plain country between their lower slopes and the Bassein river. This gradually passes into low swampy ground. The township includes the 7 circles of Tseng-pywon, Le-myet-hna (North), Le-myet-hna (South), Khyouk-tshay, Mye-nú, Thoung-dan, and Kwon-pyeng. Pop. (1876), 40,065; gross revenue, £9473.

Le-myet-hna.—Headquarters of township of same name in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated on the Nga-won or Bassein river, in lat. 17° 34′ 50″ N., and long. 95° 13′ 40″ E. When the river is high, the streets are 2 or 3 feet under water. Contains a court-house, market, and police station. Pop. (1877), 3674.

Lengjut.—Village in the north of Sylhet District, Assam, at the southern foot of the Khási Hills. The weekly market is frequented by Khási and Synteng traders, who bring down the produce of their hills to exchange for rice, cotton goods, salt, etc.

Le-toung.—Revenue circle in Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division,

British Burma. Area, 22 square miles; pop. (1876), 5344; gross revenue, £1008. Le-toung occupies the extreme north-west corner of the Ramrí township; 3 miles inland are petroleum wells, the produce of which is exported.

Le-tshú.—Revenue circle in the Thí-kweng township, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 32 square miles; pop. (1876), 5287; gross revenue, £1347. The centre is occupied by an extensive rice plain; the western portion is undulating. Chief town, Kan-gyí.

Li.—River in Kángra District, Punjab.—*See* SPITI.

Lidar.—River in Kashmír State, Punjab; one of the head-waters of the Jhelum (Jhílam). Rises in lat. 34° 8′ N., long. 75° 48′ E., on the southern slope of the mountains bounding the Kashmír valley on the north-east, at an elevation of 14,000 feet above sea level. Falls rapidly till it reaches the valley, and joins the Jhelum (Jhílam), in lat. 33° 45′ N., and long. 75° 15′ E., about 5 miles below Islámábád, after a course of 45 miles.

Lien-gún.—Revenue circle in the Hmaw-bhí township, Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 4493; gross revenue, £2355. Situated on the left bank of the Hlaing in the delta of the Irawadi. It consists of one vast plain, intersected by tidal creeks, and fringed with tree forest and *dhaní* plantations along the river banks. Chief crop, rice; small river traffic in piece-goods, crockery, salt, *nga-pee*, and vegetable produce. Principal villages, Lien-gún, Ro-gyí, and Wa-hta-ya.

Lien-gún.—Revenue circle in the Bassein township, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 28 square miles; pop. (1876), 2756; gross revenue, £834. The central portion is occupied chiefly by brushwood and forest, the rice plains being confined to the north and east tracts. This circle now includes Mai-za-lí.

Likhi.—One of the petty States of the Máhi Kánta Agency, Bombay. The Thákur, Amur Sinh, is a Múkwána Koli, born about 1837. Estimated pop. (1875), 1082; revenue, £130. The Thákur pays no tribute.

Lilájan.—River of Hazáribágh District, Bengal, which, with the Mohaní, drains the north-western portion of the District. The two streams unite in Gayá District, 6 miles south of Gayá town, and continue their course together towards the Ganges, under the name of the Phálgu.

Limra.—One of the petty States of Gohelwár in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 4 villages, with 3 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue, £2500; tribute of £93 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £28 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Limri (*Limbadi*).—Native State within the Political Agency of Káthiáwár in the Province of Guzerat, Bombay, lying between 22° 30′ 15″ and 22° 37′ 15″ N. lat., and between 71° 44′ 30″ and 71° 52′ 15″ E.

long. Area, 280 square miles; number of villages, 72; estimated pop. (1872), 45,940. The country is flat, and the soil, in some parts black and others red, is generally sandy. The Bhogáwo river flows through the State, but, like some of the smaller streams, it becomes brackish in the hot weather. The territory of Limri is peculiarly liable to inundations; and suffered severely from their devastations in the year 1878-79, the road between Limri and Wadhwán having been breached in many places. The climate, though hot, is healthy. The prevailing diseases are fever and bowel complaints. Cotton and grain are cultivated, and coarse cloth is manufactured. Before the opening of the railway to Wadhwán, the produce was exported chiefly from the port of Dholera. Limri is one of the Káthiáwár 'second-class' States, the chief of which executed the usual engagements in 1807. In the family of the Chief, the succession follows the rule of primogeniture. The present (1878-79) chief is Thákur Sáhib Jaswant Sinh Jí Fateh Sinh Jí, a Hindu of the Jhála Rájput caste. The State during his minority has been under the management of the British Government. The chief has power to try his own subjects only for capital offences, without the express permission of the Political Agent. The present ruler of Limri received his education at the Rájkumár College at Rájkot; but on 1st February 1879, on attaining his majority, he was permitted to assume full jurisdiction as a 'second-class' Chief. Estimated gross revenue, £20,000; tribute of £3048 is paid jointly to the British Government and to the Nawáb of Junágarh. The Chief maintains a military force of 133 men. There are 13 schools, with a total roll of 1000 pupils.

Limri.—Capital of Limri State, Káthiáwár, Bombay. Lat. 22° 34′ N., long. 71° 53′ E.; pop. (1872), 13,224. Formerly fortified, and once a populous place.

Lio.—Village in Bashahr State, Punjab. Lat. 31° 53′ N., long. 78° 37′ E.; situated on a small rocky height in Kunáwár, on the right bank of the Spiti river, at its confluence with the Lipak. Ruined fort crowns an isolated rock east of the village. Population consists of Buddhist Thibetans. Elevation above sea, 9362 feet.

Litar Gotra.—One of the petty States of Rewá Kánta, Bombay. Area, 1¼ square mile. Estimated revenue, £33; tribute of £20 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The State is ruled by 4 Kotwáls.

Little Bághmatí.—River of Bengal.—*See* BAGHMATI, LITTLE.

Little Gandak.—River in the North-Western Provinces.—*See* GANDAK, LITTLE.

Little Ranjít.—River of Bengal.—*See* RANJIT, LITTLE.

Loan.—Tract of country, Ráipur District, Central Provinces.—*See* LAUN.

Lodhíka.—One of the petty States of Hállár in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 12 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated

revenue in 1876, £2500; tribute of £128 is paid to the British Government, and £40 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Lodhikhera.—Trading town in Chhindwára District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 35′ N., and long. 78° 54′ E., on the Nágpur road, 38 miles from Chhindwára. Pop. (1877), 5219. Chief manufactures, excellent brass and copper utensils, and coarse cotton cloth. The town has a charitable dispensary, school, and *sarái.*

Lodhrán.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Múltán (Mooltan) District, Punjab, situated between 29° 21′ 45″ and 29° 48′ N. lat., and between 71° 4′ and 71° 51′ E. long. Consisting chiefly of an arid upland tract, lying along the bank of the river Sutlej (Satlaj). Area, 801 square miles; pop. (1868), 90,111; persons per square mile, 112; number of townships, 174.

Loghássi.—State in Bundelkhand, North-Western Provinces.—*See* LUGHASI.

Lohágara.—Town in Jessor District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 11′ 45″ N., long. 89° 41′ 40″ E. Seat of an extensive manufacture of sugar, which is exported chiefly to Calcutta and Bákarganj; the *gúr* or molasses being imported from Khájurá and other places in exchange for rice. The sugar made is for the most part *páká* (refined).

Lohághát (or *Rikheswar*).—Cantonment in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 24′ 15″ N., long. 80° 7′ 10″ E.; situated on the left bank of the little river Loha, at an elevation of 5562 feet above sea level, and enclosed on almost every side by precipitous mountains. *Bázár*, stores, bungalows, and other buildings for the accommodation of the troops. The cantonment was formerly at Champáwat, 3 miles south, but was removed to the present site for sanitary reasons. Distant from Almora, 30 miles south-east.

Lohára.—Chiefship in the south-west of Ráipur District, Central Provinces, comprising 132 villages. Area, 375 square miles, chiefly hill and jungle, gradually sloping towards the north. The mountain known as Dallí Pahár attains a height of nearly 2000 feet. The country is well watered, being bounded on the east and west by the rivers Tendula and Karkara, while numerous streamlets descend from the hills. Little remains of the once abundant teak; but the jungles still contain a good deal of *kusam*, *mahuá*, *bijesál*, and similar trees, and yield abundance of lac, wax, and honey. The hemp and cotton are bought up by Banjárás for exportation. Iron also is smelted. The Chief is a Gond; and the estate was originally granted in 1538, in return for military service by one of the Ratanpur Rájás.

Lohára Sahaspur.—Chiefship in Ráipur District, Central Provinces, comprising 84 villages. The greater part lies below the Sáletekrí Hills, and is exceedingly fertile and well cultivated; the rest consists of hill and jungle. The Chief is related to the Kawardá and Pandariá families.

Lohárdaga (*Lohardugga*).—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 22° 20′ and 24° 39′ N. lat., and between 83° 22′ and 85° 55′ 30″ E. long. Area, as returned by the Surveyor-General in 1875, 12,044 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1872, 1,237,123 persons. Lohárdaga District forms the central and north-western portion of the Chutiá Nágpur Division. It is bounded on the north by Hazáribágh and Gayá; on the north-west and west by Mírzápur District in the North-Western Provinces and by the Native States of Sargújá and Jashpur; and on the south-east and east by the Districts of Singbhúm and Mánbhúm. A portion of the eastern boundary coincides with the course of the Subarnarekhá river. The administrative headquarters are at RANCHI.

Physical Aspects. — Lohárdaga comprises two tracts of country, differing essentially in their physical conformation—Chutiá Nágpur Proper, and the Subdivision of Palámau. Chutiá Nágpur Proper, as distinguished from the administrative Division of that name, is an elevated tableland, forming the central and south-eastern portion of Lohárdaga District. To the west, this plateau rises and stretches away towards Central India, to meet the Sátpurá Mountains. On the north, it is connected with the central plateau of Hazáribágh by a narrow neck of high land passing through Torí *parganá.* The surface of the Chutiá Nágpur plateau is undulating, and the slopes of the depressions lying between the ridges are cut into terraces covered with rice. Palámau Subdivision, which forms the north-western portion of the District, consists on the east and south of spurs thrown off from the plateaux of Hazáribágh and Chutiá Nágpur, while the remainder of the tract is a tangled mass of isolated peaks and long irregular stretches of broken hills. The general run of these hill ranges is from east to west, but the relations of the minor ridges are very involved. The average elevation of the country is about 1200 feet above sea level, but some of the higher peaks rise to more than 3000 feet. This part of the District is wilder and more rocky than Chutiá Nágpur, and contains no level areas of any extent, except the valleys of the North Koel and Amánat rivers, to which rice cultivation is confined. The principal rivers of the District are the SUBARNAREKHA, and the NORTH and SOUTH KOEL The main confluents of the Subarnarekhá are the Kánchí and Karkari, both rising on the central plateau. The chief feeders of the North Koel are the Amánat, which rises in Hazáribágh, and the Aurangá, a picturesque stream of Chutiá Nágpur. The Káru, the Deo, and many minor streams fall into the South Koel. The highest hills are—in Chutiá Nágpur, Sáru (3615 feet) and Bárágái or Marang Buru (3445 feet); and in Palámau, Bulbul on the south-eastern boundary (3329 feet), Burí on the south-western boundary (3078 feet), and Kotám (2791 feet). Throughout the District, the hills are, as a rule, covered

with tree jungle or a scrubby undergrowth. The entire surface of Lohárdaga was probably at one time overgrown with dense forest, but the forest area has been continually dwindling, owing to the spread of cultivation and the practice of girdling the *sál* tree for resin. The jungle products and wild animals of the District are much the same as those in the adjoining District of Hazáribágh.

History.—The only materials, even for conjecture, regarding the early history of the District are the legends of aboriginal races, on which no reliance can be placed. The hilly country now comprised in the Chutiá Nágpur Division remained independent, both in name and in fact, during the Muhammadan period, until the Mughal governors of Bengal and Behar failed in their attempts to push their conquests farther to the east, and therefore turned their arms towards the west and south. Their earliest inroads (*circa* 1616 A.D.) were directed against Kokrah or Chutiá Nágpur Proper, which was celebrated at the Delhi court for the diamonds found in its rivers. The Musalmáns afterwards (1640-60) made several invasions into Palámau; and in the end of 1660, occurred the attack on Palámau fort, and its capture by Dáúd Khán, which forms the subject of a large picture (30 feet by 12) preserved by Dáúd's descendants. This picture, which is of considerable interest, has been recently photographed, and was described in detail by Colonel Dalton in the *Journal of the Asiatic Society* for 1874. Colonel Dalton's description is quoted in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvi. pp. 464-468. From the date of the capture of Palámau fort until 1722, the annals of Palámau are blank. In the latter year, the ruling Rájá, Ranjít Rái, was murdered, and Jáikissen Rái, descended from the younger son of a former Rájá, was placed upon the *gadí*. A few years afterwards, Jáikissen was shot in a skirmish, and his family fled to Megrá in Behar, and took refuge with one Udwant Rám, a *kánúngo*, who in 1770 took Gopál Rái, grandson of the murdered Rájá, to Patná, and presented him to Captain Carnac, the Government Agent, as the rightful heir to the Palámau Ráj. Captain Carnac promised the assistance of the British Government, and, after defeating the troops of the ruling Rájá, gave a *sanad* for five years to Gopál Rái and two of his cousins, and then left the country. Palámau thus became part of the British District of Rámgarh. A year or two later, Gopál Rái was sentenced to imprisonment at Patná for being concerned in the murder of the *kánúngo*, Udwant Rám, who had helped him to power. He died at Patná in 1784, and in the same year died Bassant Rái, who had succeeded to the *gadí* on his imprisonment. Churáman Rái succeeded; but by 1813 he had become insolvent, and Palámau was sold for arrears of revenue and bought in by Government for the amount due. In 1816, the estate was granted to Fatih Náráyan Sinh, Rájá of Deo in Gayá, for services rendered to the

Government. But his management was so oppressive as to rouse the people into open rebellion; and in 1818, Government revoked the deed of grant, allowing the Rájá a remission of £300 a year from the revenue of his Behar estates by way of compensation. Under Government rule, Palámau remained quiet, until in 1831 an insurrection broke out among the Kols, which was not quelled until March of the following year. An account of the causes which led to this insurrection, and of the measures taken to put it down, will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvi. pp. 451-454. Not before several villages had been plundered and burned, and many lives sacrificed to the enraged Kols, did the leaders surrender. The changes in administration which followed this insurrection will be found noticed in the article on HAZARIBAGH DISTRICT. A rising of the Chero and Kharwár tribes in 1832 was soon put down; and there were no further troubles until the Mutiny of 1857, when the Kharwárs, headed by the Bhogtás, rose against their Rájput landlords, and the mutineers of the Rámgarh battalion, taking refuge in Palámau, made common cause with Nilámbar and Pitámbar Sinh, two malcontent landholders. The 26th Madras Native Infantry, and a portion of the Rámgarh Battalion which had remained loyal, defeated the insurgents at the Satbarwá forts. Nilámbar and Pitámbar Sinh were taken prisoners and hanged.

Population.—The first attempt at an enumeration of the people of Lohárdaga was made at the time of the Topographical Survey of Chutiá Nágpur Proper in 1868. One hundred and twenty-eight houses, in different villages, and belonging to men of different castes, were taken at random, and the average number of persons per house thus ascertained was multiplied by the total number of houses in the District. The result arrived at was a population of 1,412,956, the area of the District at that time being 11,404 square miles. According to an experimental Census in 1869, the population was returned at 1,396,474 persons. A careful Census was taken in 1871-72. Owing to the sparseness and ignorance of the population, no attempt at a simultaneous enumeration was made; the work was done gradually by a special salaried agency. This Census disclosed a total population of 1,237,123 persons, inhabiting 6486 villages and 240,843 houses; density of the population, 103 per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 0·54; houses per square mile, 20; persons per village, 191; persons per house, 5·1. Classified according to sex, there are—males, 621,548, and females, 615,575; proportion of males, 50·2 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years of age—males, 273,936, and females, 225,364; total, 499,300, or 40·36 per cent. The large proportion of children is said to be due to the fact that the aboriginal races are unusually prolific. The returns of the Chutiá

Nágpur Division, and of the District of the Santál Parganás, display a proportion of children to the total population bearing a direct ratio to the relative strength of the aboriginal element. The ethnical division of the people is returned as follows:—Non-Asiatics (Europeans), 91; mixed races, 3; Asiatics, 1,237,029. Belonging to aboriginal tribes there are 518,645; semi-Hinduized aborigines, 225,173; belonging to Hindu castes, 412,939; persons of Hindu origin not recognising caste, 22,061; Muhammadans, 58,211. The aboriginal element is very strongly represented in Lohárdaga, the most numerous tribes being the Mundas, of whom there are 163,051; the Kols, 132,104; and the Uráons, 151,810. The word *Kol* is popularly employed in a vague way as including, not only the Mundas of Chutiá Nágpur Proper and the Larkas or Hos of Singbhúm, but all Kolarian aborigines wherever found. For a detailed account of these tribes, their origin, customs, etc., the reader is referred to Colonel Dalton's valuable *Ethnology of Bengal*, quoted at considerable length in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvi. pp. 266-279, and vol. xvii. pp. 36-59. Colonel Dalton thinks there can be no doubt of the remote north-eastern origin of the Kolarian tribes, but little is to be found in their folk-lore to throw light on the early history of the race. The families that rank highest among them have lost their native traditions in the hazy fables invented for them by the Hindus. The lower classes, as a rule, declare themselves to be autochthones; and even the chiefs found their claims to be of noble birth on miracles that took place in the country which they call their fatherland. The Uráons or Oráons, who numbered in Lohárdaga 151,810, are, excluding the semi-Hinduized aborigines, the strongest Dravidian tribe in Bengal. They are the people known in the plains as Dhángars (hillmen), and are found in great numbers throughout the Chutiá Nágpur Division. According to Colonel Dalton, the tribe has gradually migrated from the western coast of India—probably from Gujrát or the Konkan. A detailed account of the Uráons will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvi. pp. 278-294. The most numerous of the semi-Hinduized aboriginal tribes in Lohárdaga are—the Bhuiyás, of whom there are 45,008; the Kharwárs, 33,573; the Bhogtás, 33,452; and the Dosádhs, 25,223. Of high-caste Hindus, the Bráhmans number 27,326, and the Rájputs, 37,744. Of lower classes, the most numerous are—the Ahírs, a pastoral caste, 39,340; the Kurmís, the great agricultural caste of the Chutiá Nágpur Division, 35,688; Kámárs (blacksmiths), 30,515; and Telís (oilmen), 24,427. The Hindus, as grouped together on the basis of religion, number 741,952, or 60 per cent. of the total population; the number of Muhammadans is 58,211, or 4·7 per cent. The Christian population of Lohárdaga is much larger than that in any other Bengal District except the metropolitan one of the

Twenty-four Parganás. The total number of Christians in 1872 was—males, 6527, and females, 6254; total, 12,781, or 1 per cent. of the total population. This includes Europeans, Eurasians, etc., to the number of 94, leaving a balance of 12,687 for the native Christians. Of these about 9000 are baptized converts, and the remainder, though not baptized, are 'inquirers,' and call themselves Christians. Nearly all the Christians are Mundas or Uráons, and belong to the agricultural classes. Most of them are poor, but they possess considerable influence notwithstanding, and are said to be rising in public esteem. The District has been, since the founding of the original Chutiá Nágpur Mission in 1844 by the Bavarian Gossner, the most successful field of missionary labour in Bengal. There are two missions at work in the District, one sent out from Germany and the other from England. These two bodies, styled the German Lutheran Evangelical Mission, and the Church of England Mission, now work side by side with much success. A detailed account of the separate development of the two missions, together with an inquiry into the various causes affecting the progress of Christianity in Chutiá Nágpur generally, will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvi. pp. 423-444. The population of Lohárdaga is almost wholly rural. The civil station of RANCHI, itself little more than a collection of villages, has (1872) 12,086 inhabitants, and is the only town in the District with a population of more than 5000. The other towns in the District deserving notice are—DORANDA, the military cantonment, lying to the south of the civil station, and separated from it by a small stream; CHUTIA village, 2 miles east of Ránchí (whence the name Chutiá Nágpur); DALTONGANJ, administrative headquarters of the Palámau Subdivision; LOHARDAGA, 45 miles west of Ránchí, which was till 1840 the administrative headquarters of the District; and GARWA, on the North Koel river, the chief trading centre of Palámau Subdivision. Ránchí is the only municipality; Dorandá, Garwá, and Lohárdaga have been formed into *chaukidárí* or police unions. At Jagannáthpur village, 3 miles south-west of Ránchí, stands on a high rock the largest temple in the District, built on a plan roughly resembling that of the great temple at Purí. Doisá is the site of a ruined palace once inhabited by the Rájás of Chutiá Nágpur; and at the small village of Tilmí are the remains of a ruined fortress, formerly the seat of the Thákurs, a subordinate branch of the Chutiá Nágpur family. CHOKAHATU, a village in the south-east of the District, is interesting as containing a large burial-ground still used by the Mundas of the neighbourhood. Annual fairs are held at Chutiá and Daltonganj.

Agriculture.—The system of agriculture followed in Lohárdaga District is determined by the physical conformation of the country, particularly in the case of rice, which forms the principal product of

Chutiá Nágpur Proper, while in Palámau its cultivation is confined to the more highly tilled parts of the Koel and Amánat valleys. The rice crops of the District are divided into three classes—viz., *tewán*, or lowland rice, comprising both an early and an autumn crop; *gorá*, or upland rice; and *don*, which includes two autumn crops, and the great winter rice crop of the year. A more general and more correct classification of the crops will be found in the article on HAZARIBAGH DISTRICT. The method of rice cultivation described in that article is also followed in Lohárdaga; but rice of the highest quality is not grown to any extent in this District, although the soil is so well suited for the finest varieties that *zamíndárs*, who cultivate both here and in Behar, import rice from Chutiá Nágpur for their own consumption in preference to that of Behar. Other crops of Lohárdaga are wheat, barley, Indian corn, millets, peas, gram, mustard and other oil-seeds, *pán*, cotton, and tobacco. Cotton, sown in July and cut in November, and *tíl* (Sesamum orientale) form the staple export crops of the Palámau Subdivision; the area under the former crop in 1870 was estimated at 9600 acres—total yield, 949 tons of raw cotton. Tobacco, which is confined to Chutiá Nágpur Proper, covers only about 200 acres, the maximum out-turn, under favourable circumstances, being 28½ cwts. an acre. Opium cultivation was introduced into Chutiá Nágpur Proper in 1869, and has since greatly extended. In 1869, the area cultivated was 387 acres, and the out-turn was 60 cwts. In 1873-74, the area under opium was 1848 acres, and the out-turn, 245 cwts. There are two small tea plantations in the District—at Hotwár and Paléndu. Wages and prices have risen considerably of late years in the District. Coolies and day-labourers who in 1856 received 1½d., earned in 1870 from 1¾d. to 2¼d.; and smiths, bricklayers, and carpenters, whose wage in 1856 was 3d. to 4½d., obtained in 1870, 4½d. to 6d., or even 7½d. In 1870, the price of common rice was 4s. 2d. per cwt., as against 2s. 8d. in 1859; and the price of the best cleaned rice was in 1870, 5s. 9d. per cwt., as against 3s. 9d. in 1859.

Natural Calamities.—Mildew and a variety of blights caused by insects and worms occasionally attack the crops, and failure in the local rainfall sometimes causes droughts which, however, seldom affect any considerable area. Such partial failures are more common in Palámau than in Chutiá Nágpur Proper. Floods are rendered almost impossible, except for a very short time, and within the narrowest limits, by the physical conformation of the country and the extremely rapid discharge of surface drainage. The great famine of 1866 did not seriously affect the District. The highest prices reached were—for best rice, 11s. 6d. per cwt., and for coarse rice, 10s. 6d. per cwt. If in Chutiá Nágpur Proper the autumn crop were to fail, and the price of rice were to rise to 6s. 10d. a cwt. immediately after the winter crop

was off the ground, there would be reason to fear that the price would rise to 13s. 8d. a cwt. in March or April, rendering relief operations necessary.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The principal seats of trade in Lohárdaga are Ránchí, Lohárdaga, Pálkot, Govíndpur, Garwá, Nagar, Untárí, Sátbarwa, and Mahárájganj. Markets are held once or twice a week according to the importance of the neighbourhood supplied. The principal trading place in the District is Garwá in Palámau, which forms the distributing centre for the surplus produce of great part of Sargújá, of the Tributary States farther west, and of Palámau Subdivision itself. The Garwá market is held during the dry season in the sandy bed of the North Koel river, and is perhaps the largest in the Chutiá Nágpur Division. Stick-lac, resin, catechu, cocoons of *tasar* silk, hides, oil-seeds, *ghí*, cotton, and iron are there collected for exportation; rice and other food grains, brass-vessels, piece-goods, blankets, broad cloth, silk, salt, tobacco, spices, drugs, and beads are brought to market for local consumption. A large amount of business is done by travelling merchants, who buy up produce from the cultivators. Few manufactures of importance are carried on in the District. Shell-lac and lac-dye are manufactured in considerable quantities, a factory at Ránchí turning out on an average 292 tons of shell-lac annually; inferior articles of brass and iron work, coarse cloth, rough blankets, mats, baskets, rope, and rude pottery utensils are also made. The total length of roads in the District is 330 miles, maintained at an average annual cost for repairs of £1080.

Minerals.—Iron in a nodular form, and three varieties of iron-ore, are found in the District; lime and soapstone are obtained in small quantities; and copper has been found in several places in Palámau, though not in sufficient quantity to allow of profitable working. Gold is washed by the poorest classes from the sands of the rivers in the south of the District, especially in the valley of Sonapet, bordering on Singbhúm. There is one important coal-bearing tract situated to the north of Daltonganj, known as the DALTONGANJ COAL-FIELD. It covers an area of nearly 200 square miles, lying partly in the valley of the Koel river and partly in that of the Amánat, and extending altogether a distance of 50 miles from east to west.

Administration.—No returns are available of the revenue and expenditure previous to 1858-59. In that year the revenue of the District, which then contained the same area as at present, with the exception of two *parganás* recently transferred from Gayá, amounted to £13,681, and the civil expenditure to £15,440. This excess of expenditure over revenue was, however, quite abnormal, being caused by payments (amounting to £4059) made on account of the Mutiny. In 1870-71, the net revenue amounted to £29,900, and the total

expenditure to £22,563. The expansion of revenue is due for the most part to the re-settlement of Palámau at enhanced rates, the imposition of the income tax (since abolished), and the increased sale of stamps. The land tax forms a smaller proportion of the revenue of the District than in Bengal generally. In 1858-59, it amounted to £4474, or only one-third of the entire revenue of the District; by 1870-71, it had risen to £7067, but formed a still smaller proportion of the entire District revenue. There were in 1860-61, 5 magisterial and 5 civil and revenue courts in the District; in 1870-71, there were 9 magisterial and the same number of civil and revenue courts. The number of covenanted European officers at work in the District in 1860-61 was three, and in 1870-71, two. For police purposes, the District is divided into 21 *thánás* (police circles). In 1876, the regular police force numbered 509 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £9419. There was also a municipal police of 65 men, costing £356, and a rural police or village watch of 3792 men, costing in money or lands an estimated sum of £6913. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted in 1872 of 4366 officers and men, giving 1 man to every 2·75 square miles of the area or to every 497 persons of the population. The estimated total cost was £16,688, equal to a charge of £1, 7s. 8½d. per square mile, and about 3¼d. per head of population. The number of convicted prisoners confined in the two jails of the District in 1872, was 893; number discharged, 691; daily average convict population, 243. The Reports of the Director of Public Instruction show that in 1856-57, and again in 1860-61, there was only one Government school in Lohárdaga. By 1870-71, the number of Government and aided schools had increased to 7, with 620 pupils; and in 1872-73, owing to the extension of the grant-in-aid system to primary schools, the number of Government and aided schools was 178, attended by 4553 pupils. Since then, education has made rapid progress, and the number of Government, aided, and inspected schools in 1876-77 was 303, with 8088 pupils, being 6·58 pupils to every 1000 of the population. The District is divided for administrative purposes into 2 Subdivisions, and for fiscal purposes into 44 *parganás*.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the tableland of Chutiá Nágpur Proper is said to be superior to that of any other part of India, except the lower ranges of the Himálayas. The hot weather extends over almost six weeks, commencing about the 20th April, and is never really oppressive. The rainy season lasts from the middle of June to about the first week in October, but it is not very regular. The principal diseases of the District are malarious fever and rheumatism of a severe type. Small-pox has occasionally appeared in an epidemic form, but

no serious outbreak is recorded. There are two charitable dispensaries—at Ránchí and Daltonganj.

Lohárdaga.—*Sadr* or headquarters Subdivision of Lohárdaga District, Bengal. Area, 7784 square miles; villages, 3819; houses, 172,124. Pop. (1872), 870,604 persons, of whom 423,480, or 48·6 per cent., were Hindus; 26,095, or 3 per cent., Muhammadans; 12,779, or 1·5 per cent., Christians; 408,250, or 46·9, 'others.' Proportion of males in total population, 50·2 per cent.; number of persons per square mile, 112; villages per square mile, 0·49; persons per village, 228; houses per square mile, 22; persons per house, 5·1. The Subdivision comprises the 13 police circles of Bálumat, Barwá, Bassiá, Bírú, Choriá, Korambe, Lodhmá, Lohárdaga, Pálkot, Ránchí, Sílli, Tamár and Torpa. In 1870-71, it contained 10 courts, a regular police force of 374 men, and a village watch of 1772 men; cost of Subdivisional administration, £12,291.

Lohárdaga (*Lohardugga*).—Municipal town in Lohárdaga District, Bengal, and, until 1840, the administrative headquarters of the District; situated in lat. 23° 25′ 48″ N., and long. 84° 43′ 16″ E., 45 miles to the west of RANCHI, the present headquarters station. Municipal revenue in 1876-77, £132. Important market.

Lohárgáon.—Village in Bundelkhand, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 24° 29′ 30″ N., long. 80° 22′ 25″ E.; situated on the route from Allahábád to Ságar (Saugor), 198 miles south-west of the first-named town; lies in a depression between the Panna and Bandair Hills. Formerly contained a British military station, since abandoned. Elevation above sea level, 1260 feet.

Lohárinaig.—Waterfall in Garhwál State, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a series of cataracts on the river BHAGIRATHI, surmounted by a wooden bridge. Elevation above sea, 7389 feet. Lat. 30° 57′ N., long. 78° 44′ E.

Lohárú.—One of the Native States under the Political Superintendence of the Commissioner of the Hissár Division and the Government of the Punjab, lying between 28° 21′ 30″ and 28° 45′ N. lat., and between 75° 40′ and 75° 57′ E. long. The principal town, Loháru, is situated in lat. 28° 24′ N., and long. 75° 52′ E.

The founder of the State was Ahmad Baksh Khán, an Afghán, who was employed by the Rájá of Ulwur (Alwár) in negotiations with Lord Lake in 1806. In recognition of his services, he received Loháru in perpetuity from the Rájá, and the *parganá* (District) of Firozpur (Ferozepore) from Lord Lake on condition of fidelity and military service. He was succeeded by his eldest son, Shams-ud-dín Khán, who was executed at Delhi for compassing the murder of Mr. Fraser, the Resident there, in 1835. The Firozpur *parganá* was confiscated, but the Loháru estate was made over to Amín-ud-dín Khán and Ziá-ud-dín Khán, the

two brothers of Shams-ud-dín. The two chiefs remained in Delhi during the siege in 1857, and, after the capture, they were placed under surveillance, but were eventually released and restored to their position. Amín-ud-dín Khán died in 1869, and was succeeded by his son Alá-ud-dín, the present Nawáb of Loháru, who was born about 1833. By an arrangement of long standing, the younger chief has no share in the management of the State, but has a fixed allowance of £1800 per annum assigned to him. The title of Nawáb was granted to Alá-ud-dín in 1874, on condition of faithful allegiance to the British Government. He has also received a *sanad* of adoption. The area of the State is 285 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 22,000; estimated gross revenue, £6600. A military force is maintained of 11 field guns, 55 cavalry, and 180 infantry, including police and artillerymen. The chief is bound to furnish a contingent of 200 horse when required. Hospital, post office, Anglo-vernacular school, and vernacular press.

Lohit.—Important branch of the Brahmaputra river in Assam, which for a long distance forms the boundary between the Districts of Síbságar and Lakhimpur. After a winding course of about 70 miles, generally in a south-westerly direction, it rejoins the parent stream near the confluence of the Dhaneswari. The large alluvial island thus formed is called the Majuli Char or Kamlabar. It covers an area of 280,000 acres, lying wholly within the jurisdiction of Síbságar. On its right or north bank the Lohit receives the waters of the Subansirí river.

Loísinh.—Small chiefship in Sambalpur District, Central Provinces; 20 miles south-south-east of Sambalpur. Estimated pop. (1870), 935, nearly all Gonds and Kandhs, residing in 16 villages; area, 15 square miles, of which a third part is cultivated. During the Mutiny of 1857, the inhabitants, influenced by Surendra Sá, did much mischief on the high-road from Cuttack, which runs through the estate; and Muddú, the chief's brother, was hanged for the murder of Dr. Moore. Chandru, the chief, was restored after the amnesty.

Lonár.—Town in Buldána District, Berar. Lat. 19° 58′ 50″ N., long. 76° 33′ E.; pop. (1867), 1865, the majority of whom are Bráhmans. A place of great antiquity, standing on a hill amidst undulating high lands, among which lies the lake of Lonár, the fabled den of the giant Lonasúr, who was overcome in single combat by an incarnation of Vishnu. The god assumed the form of a beautiful youth, and, with the aid of the giant's two sisters, discovered his subterranean abode. With a single touch of his toe, he threw off the lid of the den, and found the giant sleeping on his couch. A hill near Dhákefal, about 36 miles south-west of Lonár, is said to be the lid of the lake thrown off by Vishnu, and to coincide in shape and size with the top of the lake. Lonasúr was buried in the den or hollow now

occupied by the great lake, whose water is supposed to be the giant's blood. Lonár has ever since been held in great veneration.

The view of the lake is very striking. It is surrounded by a circular ridge of hills about 400 feet high, among which are several old temples and ruins of other monuments. From a crevice on the southern ridge flows an ample spring of sweet water, with a fine temple at the fountain-head. The top circumference of the hollow occupied by the lake is about 5 miles, and the cavity presents the appearance of an enormous volcanic crater. The country around is of tabular or nodular basalt. The sides of this great bowl rise abruptly at an angle of 75° to 80°, the circumference of the lake itself at their bases being about 3 miles. These slopes are covered with jungle interspersed with teak; at their feet is a belt of large trees, more than a mile broad, encircling the basin. This belt is formed of concentric rings of date-palms, tamarinds, and *babúls.* A muddy space, several hundred yards broad, white and slimy, and devoid of all vegetation, surrounds the lake; and is in the rainy season covered with water. The specific gravity of the water is 1027·65. When in the dry weather evaporation reduces the level of the lake, large quantities of salts are collected, which by analysis (Malcolmson, 1837) gave in 100 pts. carbonic acid, 38; soda, 40·9; water, 20·6; insoluble matter, 0·5; and a trace of sulphate. The salt is used for dyeing and washing chintzes, and is exported to considerable distances. Some Government revenue is derived from the products of the lake.

Lonára.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; 10 miles north-west of Sandilá town. Pop. (1869), 2947, residing in 520 mud houses. Only noticeable as being the first seat of the Nikumbhs when, 300 years ago, they moved southwards from Muhamdi and drove out the Kamangárs; and still in their possession.

Loni.—Decayed town in Meerut (Mírath) District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 4088. Distant from Meerut 29 miles south-west, from Delhi 7 miles north-east. Ruined fort, built by Prithiráj, Chauhán ruler of Delhi. Formerly a hunting residence of the Mughal Emperors. About 1789, Muhammad Sháh built a grove and tank, to water which the Eastern Jumna Canal was first constructed, though never actually used. At Uldipur, Zinát Mahál, wife of Bahádur Sháh, planted another grove, enclosed by walls and gates, and containing a scarlet-domed *báradári.* Numerous other relics of the Mughal dynasty, confiscated after the Mutiny, and now for the most part in ruins. Police station, post office.

Lormí (*Lurmi*).—Valuable *táluk* in the west of Biláspur District, Central Provinces, owned by a Bairágí, to whose ancestor it was granted in 1830. Pop. (1872) about 20,320, residing in 103 villages; area, 92 square miles, of which rather more than half is cultivated, and nearly all cultivable.

Losar.—The highest inhabited village in Spiti, Kángra District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 28′ N., long. 77° 46′ E.; elevation above sea level, about 13,400 feet.

Loung-gyí. — Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 2279; gross revenue, £483.

Loung-kyek.—Revenue circle in the Mro-houng township, Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 8552; gross revenue, £625.

Loung-lún.—Revenue circle on the sea-coast in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Includes the South Mosco Islands. Pop. (1876), 3868, chiefly agriculturists; gross revenue, £954. Manufactures—coarse mats, leaf mats, and salt.

Loung-tshaing.—Revenue circle in the Ra-thai-doung township, Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 2625; gross revenue, £1054.

Lovedale.—Hill station in the Nílgiri District, Madras. Lat. 11° 22′ 40″ N., long. 76° 44′ 30″ E.—*See* UTAKAMAND.

Lowa.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; situated on the Sai river, 16 miles north-east of Púrwa, and 36 from Unao town. Lat. 26° 29′ N., long. 81° 1′ E.; pop. (1869), 3318, consisting of 3292 Hindus and 26 Muhammadans.

Lowághar.—Mountain range in Bannu District, Punjab. — *See* MAIDANI.

Luckeeserai (*Lakhí-sarái*).—Railway station in Monghyr District, Bengal, at the junction of the 'chord' and 'loop' lines of the East India Railway; 262 miles from Calcutta by the former route. A broad, handsome bridge here crosses the Keul river, on the west bank of which Luckeeserai stands. Of growing importance as a railway junction.

Lucknow.—Division or Commissionership in Oudh, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces; lying between 26° 9′ and 27° 21′ 5″ N. lat., and between 80° 5′ and 81° 54′ E. long. It forms the south-east Division of the Province, and comprises the 3 Districts of Lucknow, Unao, and Bára Bánki. Area, 4480 square miles, of which 2520 are returned as under cultivation; pop. (1869), 2,838,106, viz. 2,449,753 Hindus, 383,260 Muhammadans, 4309 Europeans, and 784 Eurasians; number of males, 1,467,429—females, 1,370,677; average density of population, 613 per square mile; number of villages, 4803.

Lucknow.—A District of Oudh, in the Division or Commissionership of the same name, under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces; lying between 26° 30′ and 27° 9′ 30″ N. lat., and between 80° 36′ and 81° 15′ 30″ E. long. Area (after recent transfers), 965 square miles; population, based on the

Census of 1869, but allowing for all recent transfers and changes of boundary, 789,465. Lucknow is bounded on the north by Hardoi and Sítápur; on the east by Bára Bánki; on the south by Rái Bareli; and on the west by Unao Districts. In shape, the District is an irregular oblong, running north-west and south-east; average length, 45 miles; average breadth, 25 miles. The administrative headquarters are at LUCKNOW CITY, the capital of the Province.

Physical Aspects.—The general aspect of the country is that of an open champaign, well studded with villages, finely wooded, and in parts most fertile and highly cultivated. In the vicinity of rivers, however, stretch extensive barren sandy tracts (*bhúr*), and there are many large sterile wastes of saline efflorescence (*usár*). The country is an almost dead level throughout, the average slope, which is from north-west to south-east, being less than a foot per mile. The principal rivers are the GUMTI and the SAI, with their tributaries. The former enters the District from the north, and, after passing Lucknow city, turns to the east and enters Bára Bánki. Its chief tributaries are the Baita and Loní, two small streams, which join it on its right bank. The Sái forms the south-west boundary of the District, running almost parallel with the Gumtí, receiving as tributaries in Lucknow the Nagwa and Bánk *nadís*.

History.—The following paragraphs on the history of the District are condensed from the Official Settlement Report:—

'Very few of the existing clans are of ancient date. Lucknow itself was not, by the most probable accounts, founded before the time of Rájá Jái Chánd of Kanauj, the downfall of whose kingdom at the hands of Sháháb-ud-dín, in 1194 A.D., saw the last of the Hindu dynasties of Northern India passing away; and the colonization of the whole of this part of the country seems due to the dispersion of the Rájputs, which the Musalmán conquest effected. There are, as far as I have been able to gather, only two or three exceptions to this—in the Janwárs of Saindar in Dewá; in the Parihárs of Ghugtír in Kursí, since driven back to Ahmamau; and in the Gautamas of Sassaindi in the Mohánlálganj *parganá*. The history of the former is very ancient, and seems strangely blended with that of the Bhars and Bahráich. The traditions of the Gautamas of Sassaindi connect them with the kingdom of Kanauj, and the Báises of Báiswára, to whose powerful kingdom they became subject, subsequent to their own occupation and ownership of the soil. Some few of the Rájpút colonies—as the Punwárs of Itaunjá (Mahona) and the Chauháns of Amosi—conducted their invasions under the auspices of, and with the sanction of, the Delhi Emperors; for at that time the Muhammadan rule in this Province was little more than nominal, and all that the Rájpúts effected seems to have been due to their own strength and exertions.

'The Rájpúts, after the tide of their immigration had once set in, made themselves masters of the whole country.

'Amethías and Gautamas possessed themselves of Mohánlálganj and Nighohán. Subsequently there came to the former *parganá* a colony of Janwárs from Ikauna in Bahráich, but they settled peaceably under the Shaikhs, who had invaded and driven out the Amethías from the north of the *parganá*—then known as Amethi—in the middle of the 16th century.

'Báises to the south, and Chauháns through the centre, of the *parganá* held Bijnaur; and Báises invaded and possessed themselves of Kákorí. Janwárs and Raikwárs settled in Mohán-Aurás; Nikumbhs, Gahírwárs, Gautamas, and Janwárs spread through Malihábád; Punwárs and Chauháns invaded Mahona; and Janwárs held the north of Kursí and Dewá. At an early period, the Janwárs were invaded by a tribe of Párihárs, and confined in Kúrsi to the north of the Kalyáni. In Dewá, they succumbed to a family of Báises.

'Then came the Musalmán conquest. Little seems to have been effected by the first invasion of Sayyid Masáúd in 1030 A.D. Traces of it may have remained in some of the old *parganá* towns, which they made their encamped settlements, as in Nagrám and Amethi of *parganá* Mohánlálganj—through which he is said to have passed—where *mahallás* are still existing, containing, as it is said, the descendants of his old followers who founded them; but for a long time they did not dare venture far from any of these, or from the headquarters which he had fixed for them at Satrikh.

'The next invasion was that of Muhammad Bakhtiyár Khiljí, during the time of Sháháb-ud-dín, in 1202 A.D. But he too seems to have left but little trace behind him. He may have founded the village of Bakhtiyár-nagar, near Malihábád, and may have left some Patháns in the town itself; but—though they may have resisted any attack made upon themselves, as in the case of the Báises under the Bais Rájá Sáthna of Kákorí—they never ventured out into the surrounding country to colonize it.

'The earliest Musalmán colonies do not probably date from much before the middle of the 13th century. Amongst the first to come were the Shaikhs of Kasmandí in the Malihábád *parganá*, and the Sayyids of Salimábád in Kúrsi. Then came the Shaikhs of Kidwára in the Lucknow *parganá*, in the direction of Satrikh, and those of Kheolí in Dewá. Many scattered Musalmán communities also are spread through Kúrsi and Dewá, but the native accounts themselves favour the belief that they originated from Satrikh.

'The Musalmáns frequently made short incursions from this place. One of the first places they attacked was the town of Dewá, where they seem to have established themselves under Sháh Wesh, a captain of

Sayyid Masáúd's; and they penetrated in the direction of Lucknow as far as the town of Marriáwán, where they met with a repulse, and their leader fell. In a village is still a tomb of portentous length, in which a *nau gaza pír*, so called from his height, is said to have been buried. By far the greater part of the Musalmán proprietorship of villages in the District, dates from the time when a Musalmán government was firmly established within the limits of the Province. They were naturally attracted towards the settlements of their own countrymen; and Musalmán villages stretch through the south of *parganás* Dewá, Kúrsi, and Lucknow, up to Kákorí.

'Local tradition states that the owners of the country, before the early Rájput and Muhammadan settlers, were certain low-caste tribes of Bhars, Arakhs, and Pásís. Who the Bhars were, is a question that still remains unanswered. Mr. Elliot says that they overran the country after the loss of Ajodhya by the Surájbansi tribes. The country had then apparently relapsed into primeval wilderness. The natives' only conception of it is that of a vast uninhabited jungle, in which none but saints and anchorites lived, who passed their time in prayer and meditation. Rájá Janmajái, son of Paríkshit, grandson of Rájá Yudishtira, of mythical times, granted them the land in *jágír*.

'The foundation of many of the towns is attributed to devotees, as Marriáwán to Mandal Rikh, Mohán to Mohángir Gosáin, Jugaur to Jagdeo Jogi, Dewá to Dewál Rikh; and they may belong to these times. The Bhars, then, found the country open to them; and in this District there was certainly some dominant clan that ruled the country, so far south as the Sái, up to the end of the 12th century.

'They seem to be of aboriginal origin, and some say belong to the forest tribes of Kols, Bhíls, Kiráts, Hais, Pardháns, and Thárús, and originally came from the Tarái. Bhar *dihis* cover the face of the country. They seem to have built in brick, which is more than their successors the Hindus do. The Kanauj dynasty before its fall made great efforts to wrest the country from them. Alá and Udan, Banáphar Rájputs, were sent by Rájá Jái Chandra, and first attacked Natháwán near Bijnaur, which is said to have been held by a Pásí Rájá Bigli; they then advanced to Sarsánwá near Amethi, and afterwards to Dewá, but seem to have got no farther.

'In describing the settlements of the Pásís and Bhars, etc., Pásis and Arakhs seem to have been in strength in Malihábád and to have stretched south to Kákorí and Bijnaur, and along the left bank of the Sái to Sassaindí. All to the east of them were Bhars.

'The Pásís must have been an aboriginal tribe, they are disowned by every one else, and their habits would favour it. Their fondness for drink was notorious. There is not a story told of the conquest of any fort, but that it was effected by plying the occupants with wine. This

is told of Bhars and Pásís alike. The natives connect them with Arakhs; they have an account of a Bhar dynasty founded about A.D. 918, by Tílok Chánd, the head of the tribe. This chief fixed upon Bahráich as his seat of empire, and led a powerful army against Rájá Bikrampál of Delhi, whom he defeated and dispossessed of his kingdom. It is then said that he held all the country up to Delhi, and all Oudh up to the mountains. His dynasty lasted for nine generations, or one hundred and fifteen years, up to A.D. 1093. It ended with Rání Bhem Deví, wife of Gobind Chánd, who died without an heir, and bequeathed the kingdom to her priestly confessor (*gúrú*), Hargobind, whose dynasty lasted for fourteen generations.'

Population.—According to the Census of 1869, the population of Lucknow District, as then constituted, was returned at 970,625 persons, or 696 to the square mile. This did not include the European officials, or the British and Native troops. The Hindu civil population numbered 783,036, or 80·7 per cent. of the whole; and the Muhammadans, 187,589, or 19·3 per cent. This District has a larger proportion of Muhammadans than any other in Oudh, but this is mainly due to Lucknow city, which contains a Musalmán population of 111,387. Allowing for recent changes and transfers, the present District contains (according to the Census of 1869) a population of 789,465 persons, dwelling in 956 collections of villages (*mauzás*) or townships; average density of the population, 818 per square mile. Classified according to sex, there are 416,960 males and 372,505 females. Hindus number 614,276, or 77·81 per cent.; Muhammadans, 167,184, or 22·19 per cent.; Christians, 4982. The remaining 3023 are unclassified prisoners and jail officials. The most numerous castes are—the Chamárs, who form 11·24 per cent. of the total Hindu population; Ahírs, 11·12 per cent.; Pásís, 10·55 per cent.; Bráhmans, 8·41 per cent.; Kshattriyas, 7·72 per cent.; Kurmís, 6·43 per cent.; Lodhs, 6·17 per cent.; and Kachhís, 4·59 per cent. The Hindus form by far the greatest portion of the agricultural classes. Of a rural population of 697,499 (in the old District), 621,307 were returned as Hindus and 76,192 as Muhammadans; the agriculturists being returned as 392,632, against 304,867 non-agriculturists. The only municipality in the District is LUCKNOW CITY, with a population within municipal limits of 257,842 persons. Three other towns contain a population of upwards of 5000, viz. AMETHI (7128), KAKORI (8220), MALIHABAD (8026). Of a total of 1371 villages and towns in the old District, 404 were returned as containing less than 200 inhabitants, 539 from 200 to 500, 292 from 500 to 1000, 101 from 1000 to 2000, 31 from 2000 to 5000, and 4 above 5000.

Agriculture.—The total area of Lucknow District, after the recent transfer of *parganás* Mohán, Aurás, Kursi, Dewá to neighbouring Dis-

tricts, is 965 square miles. The area at present under cultivation is estimated at 350,000 acres, or 547 square miles. There are 3 harvests in the year, the *rabí* in spring, the *kharíf* in the rainy season, and the *henwat* in the autumn. For the *rabí*, the chief crops are wheat, barley, gram, peas, *gujai* (a mixture of wheat and barley), *birra* (a mixture of barley and gram, gram predominating). The land under these crops amounts to 244,408 acres, wheat heading the list with 105,418 acres, or more than one-third of the whole cultivated area. For the *kharíf*, the crops are rice, millets, *sáwán*, *mandwa*, *kákun*, and Indian corn or maize. For the *henwat*, the crops are *joár* and *bájra*, *másh*, *múng*, *moth*, *masúr*, and *lobia*. In addition, there are the valuable tobacco and opium, and *kachhiána* or vegetable crops; of which tobacco takes up 1860 acres, opium 1907 acres, cotton 2070 acres, and the spices, as *zíra* (cummin seed), *saunf* (aniseed), *dhaniya* (coriander seed), 623 acres. Irrigation is carried on by means of rivers, tanks, and wells. The prevailing rates of rent are—Rs. 3 per local *bighá*, or £1, 4s. per acre for irrigated, and Rs. 2 per *bighá*, or 16s. per acre for unirrigated land. These are the rural rates. In the neighbourhood of towns, rents are much higher. The cultivators are almost all deeply in debt, and under advances of seed grain from their landlords. Wages have remained stationary in the country, but in the towns they have decreased, owing to the departure of the Oudh court, and the consequent diminished wealth and population of the city. Ordinary agricultural labourers receive about 1½d. a day in money, when not paid in grain. Artisans, such as smiths and carpenters, receive 4½d. a day for work in their own villages, or 6d. a day if called away from home. Prices have risen much of late years. The average rate in Lucknow city for wheat (the staple crop) during the fifteen years preceding annexation, was 24 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 8d. per cwt., while during the fifteen years since annexation (1856-70), it was 19 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 11d. per cwt. Barley has risen from 36 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 1d. per cwt., during the fifteen years 1841-55, to 29 *sers*, or 3s. 10d. per cwt., in the fifteen years 1856-70. The real rise of prices is, however, much higher. Grain is supplied now by railway from a larger area, the city of Lucknow has fallen off in population, and money is very scarce; all these causes should have cheapened food grains, but the intrinsic value of wheat compared to money has risen much more than the 20 per cent. which would appear from these figures.

Tenures.—Lucknow is mainly a District of small proprietors. In the old District, out of 1498 villages, 374 were owned by 37 *tálukdárs*. In the District as at present constituted, 25 *tálukdárs* hold 268 villages. The other villages are either *bhayachára* or *zamíndárí*. In the former case a community of small proprietors hold a village with its demesne in coparcenary tenure, each shareholder enjoying a portion of the land,

and also receiving a share of the rents paid by non-proprietary cultivators. It is a complex tenure. In *zamíndárí* villages there is no such mixture of rights. Several men are joint proprietors of the village, but they divide the rents only; no one has any permanent or other than permissive interest in any portion of the land. The largest estate in the District is that of Rájá Jagmohan Sinh, who holds 51 villages, and pays a Government revenue of £3688 a year.

Famines.—Famines have occurred in Lucknow in 1769, 1784-86, and 1837, and severe scarcities in 1861, 1865-66, 1869, and 1873—all caused by drought. In 1866, the price of wheat rose to 12 *sers* per rupee, or 9s. 4d. a cwt.; and in 1869 to as high as 9 *sers* per rupee, or 12s. 5d. a cwt. Maize and gram were quoted at from 13 to 12 *sers* per rupee, or from 8s. 7d. to 9s. 4d. a cwt. in 1866 and 1869. At the height of the scarcity of 1873, cheap grain of some kind was to be had at from 18 to 16 *sers* per rupee, or from 6s. 3d. to 7s. a cwt.

Roads and Communications.—The District is well provided with communications by road, river, and railway. Three imperial lines of road branch out south, east, and north to Cawnpore, Faizábád, and Sítápur, metalled and bridged throughout, and comprising, exclusive of the roads in Lucknow city and cantonments, a length of about 500 miles. The principal local lines of road are 7 in number, as follow:—(1) to Kúrsi; (2) to Dewa; (3) to Sultánpur, passing through Gosáinganj and Amethi; (4) to Rái Bareli, passing through Mohánlálganj; (5) to Mohán, which, crossing the Sái by a fine old native-built bridge, passes on to Rasúlábád, in Unao District; (6) to Malihábád, which runs on to Sandíla, a large town in Hardoi. These roads connect the capital with the *parganá* towns, and the latter are joined by others running (1) from Mahona through Kúrsi to Dewa, whence it passes on to the District of Bára Bánki; (2) from Gosáinganj through Mohánlálganj to meet the Imperial Cawnpore road at Janábganj near Bani bridge; and (3) by a road from Bani bridge through Mohán to Aurás, which is there crossed (4) by a road that, passing over the Sái by a substantial bridge, runs through the upper end of the Mohán Aurás *parganá*, and joins the Malihábád and Sandíla road at Rahímábád. There is another road, some 7 miles long, leading from Lucknow to Bijnaur. These local roads are well bridged throughout, and though heavy during the rains, are well suited for the traffic of the broad-wheeled carts of the country and the soft-footed bullocks that pull them.

River communication is not much used. The Gumti flows south-east through part of the District for a total distance of 95 miles. But its course is tortuous, and passage slow, and it is not much used, except for the conveyance of wood and straw, which is carried down in barges, freighted sometimes with so much as 40 or 50 tons each. On the

whole, the Gumti may be said to bar rather than further communication, but Government ferry-boats are attached to various *gháts*.

The line of railway is comprised in the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway system. It branches out in three directions—east, south-west, and north-east. The first passes through the thickly populated *parganá* of Lucknow to Bára Bánki, and, sending a branch to Bahrámghát on the Gogra, passes on through Faizábád (Fyzábád) towards Benares. The next connects Lucknow with Cawnpore, a line of 48 miles, of which about 16 miles run through this District. The last communicates with Sháhjahánpur, and passing the large and important towns of Kákori and Malihábád, traverses the Malihábád *parganá* on its way through Hardoi to Sháhjahánpur, Bareli, and Moradábád. The entire length of railway communication in the District is 52 miles.

Manufactures, Trade, etc. — Manufactures are mainly confined to LUCKNOW CITY. In the country towns are a few weavers, dyers, bangle-makers, brass-workers, and potters. Cotton-weaving has greatly declined since the introduction of European goods. The principal imports of the District are food-stuffs, piece-goods, arms, hardware, glass, crockery, and salt; exports—muslins, embroidery, cotton prints, brass vessels, lace, tobacco, etc.

Administration.—The District is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, aided by one Magistrate in special charge of the city, and a second in the cantonments, 1 or 2 Assistant Commissioners, 3 extra-Assistant Commissioners, 3 *tahsíldárs*, and 4 Honorary Magistrates. Besides, there are a Civil Judge and a Small Cause Court Judge, who have no criminal or revenue powers. The total imperial and local revenue of Lucknow District in 1871-72 amounted to £162,926, and the expenditure to £70,534; the Government land revenue was £70,580. The police of Lucknow is divided into 3 divisions—(1) the special city police, numbering in 1873, 890 men, excluding guards on quasi-military duty; the area of the city District is 36 square miles, and the population is 284,406; (2) the cantonment police, numbering 61; (3) the District police, numbering 505 on civil duty, and 778 in all. The entire number of police is 1729, to an area of 965 square miles. Excluding Lucknow city, the schools in the District consist of 1 Anglo-vernacular middle-class school, 5 vernacular middle-class schools, and 71 primary schools.

Medical Aspects.—Average annual rainfall in the District generally, 37·6 inches; in Lucknow city, 41·4 inches. Mean annual temperature for six years ending 1873, 78·8° F. The mean temperature of the hottest months in 1873 was 91° F. in May, and 97·5° in June. Maximum temperature in sun's rays, 171°; minimum on grass, 26·7°.

The prevailing endemic diseases of the District are fevers, skin diseases, and bowel complaints. Fevers occur throughout the year;

but their prevalence during three months—September, October, and November—is marked. In 1873, the largest number of recorded deaths (960) occurred in November and the smallest (367) in July. The total number of deaths registered from fevers during 1873 was 7233, giving a ratio of 9·30 per thousand of the population. During the same year, no less than 2531 cases of fever were treated in the King's hospital, civil dispensary, and Balrámpur hospital, in the city of Lucknow. The most common kind is intermittent fever of the quotidian type; the quartan type is comparatively rare. Remittent fever is not uncommon. Cholera is seldom absent from the District. There is no year in which a considerable number of deaths is not ascribed to this disease. Both forms of cholera (sporadic and epidemic) are met with. The disease appears at the setting in of the rains, and is generally prevalent during the months of July, August, September, October, and November. In 1873, the largest number of deaths (91) occurred in November. Small-pox generally makes its appearance in March, and attains its maximum intensity in the months of April, May, and June. It begins to decline during the rains, and almost disappears by the middle of the cold weather. Small-pox rages with virulence among all ranks of society, and, in the absence of general vaccination, numbers are carried off every year.

Lucknow.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Lucknow District, Oudh, lying between 26° 38′ 30″ and 27° 0′ 15″ N. lat., and between 80° 42′ and 81° 8′ 30″ E. long. Bounded on the north by Malihábád *tahsíl;* on the east by Bára Bánki District; on the south by Mohánlálganj *tahsíl;* and on the west by Mohán *tahsíl* of Unao. This *tahsíl* comprises the 3 *parganás* of LUCKNOW, BIJNAUR, and KAKORI. Pop. (1869), (exclusive of Christians), 468,119, consisting of 336,188 Hindus and 131,931 Muhammadans; area, 359 square miles, of which 184 are returned as under cultivation; number of villages and towns, 369.

Lucknow.—*Parganá* of Lucknow District, Oudh; the tract lying immediately around LUCKNOW CITY, in which the whole interest of the *parganá* centres. Area, 165 square miles, of which 96 are returned as under cultivation, being practically the whole of the land available for tillage. Pop. (1869), including Lucknow city, 368,977, or 2102 to the square mile; excluding the city, 95,851, or 656 per square mile. Muhammadans form 25 per cent. of the population, including the city; but only 10·3 per cent. exclusive of it. Rents are high, but, as elsewhere, the Kshattriyas pay less than the lower castes. Their average rent is 7s. 9d. per acre, while Lodhís pay 12s. 6d., and the Kachhís as high as 27s. 3d. an acre. In individual instances in villages around the city, rents amount to as much as £4, and even £5, an acre. Government land revenue, £15,603; average incidence, 3s. 1½d. on total area, 3s. 11½d. on assessed area, and 5s. 3¾d. on cultivated area.

In villages around the city, the assessment falls at the rate of 13s. 1½d. per acre. Besides LUCKNOW CITY, the *parganá* contains the towns of UJARIAON, Juggam, Chinhat, Mahábanlipur, and Tháwar. Total number of towns and villages, 180.

Lucknow (*Lakhnao*).—Capital city of the Province of OUDH; situated on both banks of the river Gumti, in lat. 26° 51′ 40″ N., and long. 80° 58′ 10″ E. Distant from Cawnpore 42 miles, from Benares 199 miles, from Calcutta 610 miles. Area, 13 square miles; population in 1869, 284,779 persons. Though quite a modern town, Lucknow at present ranks fourth in size amongst Indian cities, being only surpassed by the three Presidency capitals of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay. It stands on an elevated plain, 403 feet above sea level; and although destitute of any considerable trade or manufacture, still possesses very great wealth. Till recent years, it formed the metropolis of a great Muhammadan kingdom, and afterwards contained the administrative headquarters of a considerable British Province; while even at the present day it retains its position as a centre of modern Indian life, being the leading city of native fashion, and the chief school of Indian music, grammar, and Musalmán theology. Since the departure of its native court, however, Lucknow may be considered as undergoing a comparative decadence.

Situation and General Appearance.—Lucknow stands on both banks of the Gumti, but the greater portion of the city stretches along its western side, a few suburbs only covering the farther shore. Four bridges span the river, two of them built by native rulers, and two since the British annexation in 1856. Viewed from a distance, Lucknow presents a picture of unusual magnificence and architectural splendour, which fades on nearer view into something more like the ordinary aspect of a crowded oriental town. From the new bridge across the Gumti, the city seems to be embedded in trees. High up the river, the ancient stone bridge of Asaf-ud-daulá crosses the stream. To its left rise the walls of the Machí Bháwan fort, enclosing the Lachman *tilá* (Lachman's hill), the earliest inhabited spot in the city, from which it derives its modern name. Close by, the immense Imámbára, or mausoleum of Asaf-ud-daulá, towers above the surrounding buildings. Farther in the distance, the lofty minarets of the Jamá Masjíd or 'cathedral mosque' overlook the city; while nearer again, on the same side of the river, the ruined walls of the Residency, with its Memorial Cross, recall the heroic defence made by the British garrison in 1857. In front, close to the water's edge, the Chattar Manzil palace, a huge and irregular pile of buildings, crowned by gilt umbrellas, glitters gaudily in the sunlight; while to the left, at some little distance, two mausoleums flank the entrance to the Kaisar Bágh, the last of the overgrown palaces built by the exiled dynasty of Oudh. Still more

picturesque panoramas may be obtained from any of the numerous towers and cupolas which abound in every quarter. But a nearer examination shows that Lucknow does not correspond in its interior arrangements to its brilliant appearance from a little distance. Nevertheless, many of its streets are broader and finer than those of most Indian towns; and the clearance effected for military purposes after the Mutiny, has been instrumental in greatly improving both the aspect and the sanitary condition of the city. A glacis half a mile broad surrounds the fort; and three military roads, radiating from this point as a centre, cut right through the heart of the native quarter, often at an elevation of some 30 feet above the neighbouring streets. Three other main roads also branch out from the same point, one leading across the bridge, and the two others along the banks of the Gumti. The Residency crowns a picturesque eminence, the chief ornament of the city, containing, besides many ruined walls, an old mosque and a magnificent banian tree. An artificial mound rises near at hand, its sides gay with parterres of flowers, while in the rear, half hidden by the feathery foliage of gigantic bamboos, the graveyard covers the remains of some 2000 Europeans, who perished by war or massacre during the Mutiny of 1857. The various architectural works which adorn or disfigure Lucknow may best be considered in their historical order. South-east of the city, and separated from it by a canal, lie the cantonments, which extend over an area of 11 or 12 square miles.

History.—Like so many of the great modern cities of India, Lucknow owes its importance almost entirely to the last century. It first rose to greatness as the capital of the young dynasty which established itself in Oudh during the decay of the Mughal Empire, and spread its rule, not only over the modern Province, but also through the neighbouring tracts of Rohilkhand, Allahábád, Cawnpore, and Gházípur. From very early times, however, a small village probably existed upon the spot where the family of Saádat Khán afterwards fixed the seat of their supremacy. The earliest inhabitants appear to have been Bráhmans and Káyasths, who dwelt around the Lakshman *tílá*, now the high ground enclosed within the Machí Bháwan fort. Here Lakshman, brother of Rám Chandra, Rájá of Ajodhya, having obtained a large tract of country up to the Gogra in *jágír*, founded the village of Lakshmanpur, on a spot sacred to Sesnág, the thousand-headed snake, who supports the world upon his back. A mosque, built by the bigoted Aurangzeb, now covers the holy place. The village of Lakshmanpur still stood within the memory of men now living.

The Shaikhs, afterwards known as the Shaikhzádas of Lucknow, were the earliest Muhammadan conquerors of Oudh. Later on, the Patháns of Rámnagar occupied the country up to the point where the Gol Darwáza gate subsequently stood. East of this demarcating

line, the Shaikhs bore rule, and built a stronghold on the site of the present Machí Bháwan fort. A small town grew up around their castle, which bore the name of Lucknow at least as early as the reign of Akbar. In the survey carried out by that great Emperor, it is described as 'a large city pleasantly situated upon the banks of the Gumti, with very delightful suburbs.' The *Aín-i-Akbarí* also mentions the tomb of Shaikh Míná Sháh, a Musalmán saint, to whom prayers were already offered. The Bráhmans then formed a leading section of the population; and Akbar, with his usual tolerant indifference, wishing to gratify them, caused the *Báj pei* sacrifice to be offered, and gave them a *lákh* of rupees. The city grew but little before his time, and its subsequent enlargements belong to three periods, those of Akbar himself, of Asaf-ud-daulá, and of Saádat Alí Khán. The oldest inhabited portions of the present city are the Hindu wards, lying in the immediate neighbourhood of the *chauk*. The wards to the south, along the line of the *chauk*, were built under Akbar, who took a great fancy to the town, and did much to promote its welfare. His son, Mírzá Salím Sháh, afterwards the Emperor Jahángír, founded Mírzá Mandi, lying to the west of the enceinte of the present fort. But none of the great buildings which now adorn the city, date back to an earlier period than that of the independent Oudh dynasty.

Saádat Khán, founder of the Oudh kingdom, began life as a Persian merchant of Naishápur, and ended it as the greatest warrior of his age, except perhaps Ahmad Khán. He became Governor (Subahdár) of Oudh in 1732 A.D., and fixed his residence at Lucknow. Unlike his descendants, who built themselves the gorgeous and tasteless palaces which now fill the city, Saádat Khán was content with a comparatively humble dwelling, situated behind the Machí Bháwan. An open space, south-west of the fort, now occupied by ordnance stores, marks the site of two early buildings, the oldest in Lucknow erected by the family of Shaikhs, who formerly ruled over the surrounding territory. When Saádat Khán first assumed the reins of local government as Subahdár, he hired these houses from their owners at a moderate monthly rent. At first, the money was regularly paid; but in process of time, the ruling family began to regard the buildings as their own, and the rent fell into arrears. Safdar-jang and Shujá-ud-daulá gave written agreements to fulfil the engagement, but never met them; and Asaf-ud-daulá finally confiscated the houses outright, without any kind of compensation. Saádat Khán himself met at first with some opposition from the Shaikhs; but in the end he was completely successful, and before his death he had made Oudh practically an independent principality. Even in his old age he retained his personal strength and his military skill; and his Hindu foes recorded with awe how he slew in single combat Bhagwant Sinh Khíchi, and how his troops, when almost beaten, rushed again to the

conflict where the long white beard of their chief led the van of the battle. His son-in-law and successor, Safdar-jang, a great statesman (A.D. 1743), lived at Delhi as Nawáb Wazír; but he built the fort of Jalálábád, 3 miles south of the city, to intimidate the Báis of Báiswára. He also rebuilt the old stronghold of Lakshmanpur, which thenceforth bore the name of Machí Bháwan, from the fish called *machi*, the crest of the Subahdár. Under his rule, too, the old bridge across the river was begun, though not completed till the time of Asaf-ud-daulá. Safdar-jang's son and successor, Shujá-ud-daulá (A.D. 1753), after the battle of Baksar, lived at Faizábád; and Lucknow received no additions during his rule.

The three earliest Nawábs of the Oudh dynasty were soldiers and statesmen, all of whom took the field in person against English, Marhattás, and Rohillás, or against the great nobles whose feudal power had reduced the central authority to a mere name. Under their government, therefore, Lucknow received few architectural embellishments of an ornamental kind. Only works of military utility, such as forts, wells, and bridges, engaged their attention; though the city continued to grow, as headquarters of the ruling house, and several wards were added on its spreading outskirts. With Asaf-ud-daulá, the fourth Nawáb, however, a new political situation grew up. He lived the contented and servile ally of the English. By their aid, Oudh had acquired Rohilkhand, and might acquire Benares; and he felt himself comparatively independent of his own people. The grandeur of Lucknow dates from the reign of this Nawáb. Yet his works did not degenerate into the mere personal extravagance of his successors. He built bridges and mosques, as well as the Imámbára, the chief architectural glory of Lucknow. Though inferior to the purest Muhammadan models of Delhi and Agra, the Imámbára, taken together with the adjoining mosque and the Rúmi Darwáza, forms a group of striking magnificence and picturesque splendour. Asaf-ud-daulá's erections are simple and grand, free from the base admixture of bastard Greek and Italian features which disfigure the later style of the Oudh dynasty. The Imámbára, constructed during the great famine of 1784, as a relief work for the starving people, now covers the remains of its founder. Tradition relates that many of the most respectable inhabitants, compelled by want, enrolled themselves amongst the workmen; and that to save their honour and keep their identity unknown, their names were called over, and their wages paid, at dead of night. The building consists of one large hall of immense size and magnificence. It measures 167 feet in length by 52 in breadth, and cost, according to local computation, no less than a million sterling. The gaudy decorations which once covered its walls have now disappeared; and as the mausoleum stands within the walls of the fort, it serves at present as an arsenal

for the British garrison. The building is as solid as it is graceful, being raised upon very deep foundations, and without a single piece of wood-work in its construction. Mr. Fergusson, though he has little to say in favour of any other architectural work in Lucknow, praises the admirable vaulting of the Imámbára, and observes that the mausoleum, 'when not too closely looked into, is not unfit to be spoken of in the same chapter as the earlier buildings.'

Amongst other works of Asaf-ud-daulá, the Rúmi Darwáza, a fine old massive and isolated gateway that still leads out of the Machí Bháwan fort, ranks highest in importance. The Daulatkhána, along the banks of the river west of the fort, and the magnificent palace known as the Residency, also belong to the same period. The latter edifice looks down upon the Gumti from a considerable elevation, and forms the most striking feature in the whole of Lucknow. It was allotted to the British Resident by Saádat Alí when he made his own home in the magnificent Farhat Baksh. Outside the city, and across the river, lies the palace of Bibiápur, built by Asaf-ud-daulá as a country residence and hunting-lodge. Numerous other handsome edifices in various parts of the town attest the greatness of the same Nawáb, whose memory is still preserved in popular rhymes as the embodiment of liberality and magnificence.

To the reign of Asaf-ud-daulá belongs also the Martinière, a school founded by General Claude Martin, and completed after his death. It consists of a colossal Italian villa on an exaggerated scale. General Martin himself designed the plan and elevation, and showed them to the Nawáb, who wished to buy the building for a million sterling. The founder's bones were buried within the building to prevent its confiscation by the Musalmán court, but were dug up and scattered during the Mutiny. The school now affords clothing and education to 120 boys.

Under Asaf-ud-daulá, the Lucknow court reached its highest splendour. The dominions of the Nawáb extended over a wider area than at any earlier or later period. All the wealth of the State was devoted to the personal aggrandizement of its ruler, and the accumulation of those materials which minister to oriental pomp. No court in India or in Europe could rival the magnificence of the Nawáb Wazír; and his only ambition apparently consisted in discovering how many elephants or diamonds the Nizám or Tipú possessed, in order that he might outvie them. At the marriage of his reputed son, Wazír Alí Khán, who four years afterwards murdered Mr. Cherry, and died in Chunár prison, the marriage procession consisted of 1200 elephants, and the young prince wore jewels valued at £200,000. But this vast accumulation of wealth could only be effected by the most crushing taxation. Four years afterwards, Tennant traversed the whole of Oudh, and

found almost everywhere a plundered and desolate country. The Nawáb's dominions, he says, 'in defiance of the bounty of nature, display a uniform sterility.' In Rohilkhand, 'not the hundredth part of an acre is under cultivation;' and 'the solitude and gloom of the Province' were only relieved by a little prosperity where the eunuch Mián Almás administered a few districts with comparative wisdom and moderation. Of Lucknow itself, he remarks, 'I never witnessed so many varied forms of wretchedness, filth, and vice.'

Saádat Alí Khán, half-brother to Asaf-ud-daulá (1798), carried his submission to the British power still further. He gave up half his dominions to the English, and in return obtained the protection of their troops quartered in his citadels. Thenceforth the Nawábs and kings of Oudh degenerated into a mere *fainéant* dynasty of pleasure-seekers, whose works no longer partook of any national or utilitarian character, but ministered solely to the gratification of the sovereign. In the place of mosques, wells, forts, or bridges, palace after palace sprang up in succession, each more ungraceful and extravagant than the last. At the same time, European influence began to make itself felt in the architecture, which grew gradually more and more debased from reign to reign. Awkward imitations of Corinthian columns supported Musalmán domes, while false Venetian blinds and stucco marble replaced the solid masonry of the earlier period. A modest mansion rented from a private family had satisfied the soldier chief, Saádat Khán, and his two successors. One palace sufficed even for the prodigal Asaf-ud-daulá, the builder of the Imámbára, the *chauk*, the *bázárs*, and the market-places. Saádat Alí, however, built numerous palaces; while with Nasír-ud-dín Haidar, began an era of extravagant expenditure on monstrous residences for the royal family and their female dependants. In the Chattar Manzil lived the king's wives; in the Kaisar Pasand and other buildings, his concubines; in the Sháh Mánzil, his wild beasts. He himself inhabited the Farhat Baksh, the Hazúr Bagh, the palace at Bibiápur, and many others. Wájid Alí Sháh had 360 concubines, each with a separate range of palatial apartments.

To Saádat Alí Khán's reign belongs the Farhat Baksh, or 'Giver of Delight,' the chief royal residence till Wájid Alí built the Kaisar Bágh. Part of this magnificent building, overlooking the river, the Nawáb purchased from General Martin. The remainder he himself constructed. The great throne-room, known as the Kasr-us-Sultán or Lál Báradári, was set apart for royal *darbárs;* and at the accession of a new sovereign, it was customary for the British Resident to seat him on the throne, and present him with a *nazar*, in token of his confirmation in the sovereignty by the supreme power. Saádat Alí Khán also built all that portion of Lucknow which stretches eastward from the old

Hindu wards, besides numerous small palaces, including the Dílkusha, which stands on high ground outside the city, north of the modern cantonments, affording a splendid view of the town, the river, and the surrounding country. In his time, Lucknow finally reached very nearly its present size.

Ghází-ud-dín Haidar, son of Saádat Alí Khán (1814), was the first of his line who bore the name of king. He built the greater part of the pile known as the Moti Mahál palace, around the Moti Mahál dome of his father. Along the river face, he added the Mubárak Manzil and the Sháh Manzil, on either side of the old bridge of boats. The latter formed the scene of the wild-beast fights for which the court of Oudh was famous up to the date of its extinction. Ghází-ud-dín Haidar also erected the Chini *bázár*, the Chattar Manzil Kalán, which faces the river, and the Chattar Manzil Khurd in its rear. The Sháh Najaf, on the banks of the Gumti, he built for his own tomb; and on the spot formerly occupied by his house, when heir-apparent, he raised two magnificent mausoleums to his father and mother. He attempted to dig a canal for irrigation, which now skirts the east and south sides of the city; but it proved a failure, so far as economical results were concerned. The Kadam Rasúl or 'Prophet's Footprint,' a Muhammadan place of worship, built by Ghází-ud-dín, stands upon an artificial mound, and formerly contained a stone bearing the impress of the Prophet's foot. A pilgrim brought the holy relic from Arabia; but during the troubles of 1857, it disappeared, and has not since been recovered.

Nasír-ud-dín Haidar, son of the last-named monarch (1827), founded the Táráwáli Kothi or 'Observatory,' under the superintendence of Colonel Wilcox, his astronomer-royal. It contained several excellent instruments. On the death of Colonel Wilcox in 1847, Wájid Alí Sháh dismissed the establishment, and the instruments disappeared in the Mutiny, being probably broken up by the rebels. The Faizábád Maulvi, Ahmad-ullá Sháh, made it his headquarters during the rebellion, and the insurgent council frequently held its meetings within the building. Nasír-ud-dín also built a great *karbala* in Irádatnagar, under which he lies buried.

Muhammad Alí Sháh, uncle of Nasír-ud-dín Haidar (1837), raised his own monument, the magnificent Husáinabad Imámbára. It consists of two enclosures, one of which stands at right angles to the other. Leaving the fort by the great Rúmi Darwáza, a broad road near the Gumti, a quarter of a mile in length, conducts to the gate of the outer quadrangle. A spectator standing a little to the west of the road can take in at a single view the great Imámbára of Asaf-ud-daulá and the Rúmi Darwáza to the right, with the Husáinábád mausoleum and the Jamá Masjíd to the left. The whole forms one of the finest architectural prospects in the world. This king also laid out a splendid road, which leads

from the Chattar Manzil through the fort along the river bank to his Imámbára. A magnificent tank, standing beside the road, dates from the same reign. Alí Sháh likewise began the erection of a mosque, at a short distance from his mausoleum, designed to surpass the Jamá Masjíd of Delhi in size; but he did not live to complete it, and it stands still half built, with the scaffolding rotting away outside, untouched from the day of his death. The Sát Khanda or 'Seven-storied Tower,' another of Alí Sháh's projected works, remains similarly unfinished, only the fourth storey having reached its completion.

Amjad Alí Sháh, the fourth king (1841), made a metalled road to Cawnpore, built his own mausoleum at Hazratganj, and laid down an iron bridge across the Gumti. This bridge was brought out from England by order of Ghází-ud-dín Haidar, who, however, died before it arrived. His son, Nasír-ud-dín Haidar, directed that it should be put up opposite the Residency, where a small temple and *ghát* now stand; but the operations for sinking wells to receive the piers proved unsuccessful, and the work was thus delayed till the accession of Amjad Alí.

Wájid Alí Sháh, the last King of Oudh (1847), bears the whole opprobrium for the erection of the Kaisar Bágh, the largest, gaudiest, and most debased of all the Lucknow palaces. It was commenced in 1848, and finished in 1850, at a cost of 80 *lákhs* (say £800,000). Entering by the north-east gateway, which faces the open space in front of the Observatory, the visitor passes through a court to a gate known as the Jilaukhána, whence the royal processions used to start. Turning to the right, through a screened gateway, he arrives at the Chíni Bágh, so called from the China vessels which formerly decorated the gardens. A portal flanked by green mermaids, in the worst European taste of the last century, leads next to the Hazrat Bágh. On the right hand lie the Chándiwáli Báradári, once paved with silver, and the Khás Mukám, as well as the Badsháh Manzil, the special residence of the king, erected by Saádat Alí Khán, but included by Wájid Alí Sháh in the plan of his new palace. On the left stands a large confused pile of buildings, called the Chanlakkhi, built by Azim-ullá Khán, the king's barber, and sold by him to the king for 4 *lákhs*. It formed the residence of the queen and the chief concubines. In this building the rebel Begam held her court, while the British prisoners lay for weeks in one of the stables close at hand. The roadway proceeds past a tree, paved round the roots with marble, under whose shade the king used to sit on fair-days, dressed in the yellow robes of a *fakír*. The Eastern Lakhi gate, so called from its having cost a *lákh* of rupees, gives access to a magnificent open square, known pre-eminently as the Kaisar Bágh, and surrounded by the residences of the ladies of the harem. In the month of August, a great fair used to be held in this square, to which all

Lucknow was admitted. Proceeding past the stone Báradári, now fitted up as a theatre, and under the Western Lakhi gate, which corresponds to its eastern namesake, the visitor reaches a building known as the Kaisar Pasand, surmounted by a gilt hemisphere. This palace was erected by Roshan-ud-daulá, minister of Nasír-ud-dín Haidar; but Wájid Alí Sháh confiscated it, and gave it as a residence to his favourite concubine, Mashuk-us-Sultán. Finally, a second Jilaukhána leads once more into the open street.

Since the British annexation, but little has been done in the way of architectural improvement, though charitable dispensaries, schools, and other works of public utility have been largely undertaken. Mahárájá Digbijái Sinh of Balrámpur has also founded a capacious hospital on a plot of high ground adjoining the Residency, with beds for one hundred patients.

Glancing over the chief points of the city at a single view, Lucknow is thus seen to contain two noble mosques, one Imámbára of imperial dimensions, four tombs of regal splendour (those of Saádat Alí Khán of Mushid Zádi, of Muhammad Alí Sháh, and of Ghází-ud-dín Haidar), together with two great palaces, or rather collections of palaces (the Chattar Manzil and the Kaisar Bágh). Besides these larger works, it also comprises a whole host of royal garden houses, pavilions, town mansions, temples, and mosques. Almost every building owes its origin to the late reigning family. The nobles of the court and the merchants could not display their wealth with safety in any other form than the erection of mosques or tombs. It was dangerous for any but the king's immediate relatives to live in a handsome mansion. Since the annexation, however, the nobility of Oudh have built a large number of town houses. They generally possess an imposing gateway, as one main feature of the façade, consisting of arch within arch, rising from the same base, and covered with a modern oriental profusion of gaudy colouring.

Lucknow contains the most debased examples of architecture to be found in India. Portions of the Kaisar Bágh consist of decoration in the very worst style which prevailed during the last century in Europe, and which, when banished from England, took refuge in India. 'No caricatures of architecture,' says Mr. Fergusson, writing of this city, 'are so ludicrous or so bad as those in which Italian details are introduced.' Nowhere else has the oriental become simply vulgar. Nevertheless, many buildings in Lucknow present a sky line and general plan of considerable beauty. Seen from a distance, the fantastic domes and pinnacles of the Martinière, the Chattar Manzil, and the Kaisar Bágh are not without a certain picturesque effect; while the more ancient tombs and minarets rise in solemn contrast of dark grey stone against the gilded summits of their younger rivals. The old

buildings, also, are much more solidly built than the new. The Imámbára, now almost a hundred years old, though exposed to a heavy cannonade during the Mutiny, has not lost a single brick; while the Kaisar Bágh, not yet thirty years of age, has suffered much from decay, and already presents a ruinous appearance. Flying buttresses to support nothing but one another, copper domes gilt from top to bottom, burnished umbrellas, and balustrades of burnt clay, form frequent features in the tawdry architecture which renders the distant aspect of Lucknow so bright and sparkling. The plaster of stucco, however, gives considerable beauty to the ordinary dwellings. The finest kind is made from shells found in the dry beds of ancient lakes. This *chunam* has a brighter and purer appearance than even marble, and when lighted up with thousands of lamps, it produces an exquisitely beautiful effect.

Since the introduction of British rule, the new authorities have laid out well-kept roads, widened the tortuous native streets, and founded commodious *bázárs*, in which due attention has been paid to the comfort and convenience both of the commercial classes and their customers. The sanitary officers enforce stringent rules of cleanliness; and a municipality, containing many elective members, provides for the welfare of the city, with a just regard to native feeling and wishes.

Mutiny Narrative.—A couple of months before the outbreak at MEERUT, Sir Henry Lawrence (20th March 1857) had assumed the Chief Commissionership of the newly annexed Province of OUDH. The garrison at Lucknow then consisted of the 32nd (British) Regiment, a weak company of European artillery, the 7th Regiment Native Light Cavalry, and the 13th, 48th, and 71st Regiments of Native Infantry. In or near the city were also quartered two regiments of irregular local infantry, together with one regiment of military police, one of Oudh irregular cavalry, and two batteries of Native artillery. The town thus contained nearly ten Indian soldiers to every European, or 7000 to 750. Symptoms of disaffection occurred as early as the month of April, when the house of the surgeon to the 48th was burned down in revenge for a supposed insult to caste. Sir Henry Lawrence immediately took steps to meet the danger by fortifying the Residency and accumulating stores. On the 30th of April, the men of the 7th Oudh Irregulars refused to bite their cartridges, on the ground that they had been greased with cow's fat. They were induced with some difficulty to return to their lines. On May 3, Sir Henry Lawrence resolved to deprive the mutinous regiment of its arms, a step which was effected not without serious delay. On May 12, Sir Henry held a *darbár*, and made an impressive speech in Hindustáni, in which he called upon the people to uphold the British Government, as most tolerant to Hindus and Muhammadans alike. Two days earlier, the massacre at Meerut had taken place, and a telegram brought word of the event on the

morning after the *darbár*. On the 19th, Sir Henry Lawrence received the supreme military command in Oudh. He immediately fortified the Residency and the Machí Bháwan, bringing the ladies and children into the former building. On the night of the 30th May, the expected insurrection broke out at Lucknow. The men of the 71st with a few from the other regiments began to burn the bungalows of their officers, and to murder the inmates. Prompt action was taken, and early next morning the European force attacked, dispersed, and followed up for 10 miles the retreating mutineers, who were joined during the action by the 7th Cavalry. The rebels fled towards Sítápur. Though the city thus remained in the hands of the British, by the 12th of June every other post in Oudh had fallen into the power of the mutineers. The Chief Commissioner still held the cantonments and the two fortified posts at the beginning of June, but the symptoms of disaffection in the city and amongst the remaining native troops were unmistakable. In the midst of such a crisis, Sir Henry Lawrence's health unhappily gave way. He delegated his authority to a council of five, presided over by Mr. Gubbins, the Financial Commissioner, but shortly after recovered sufficiently to resume the command. On June the 11th, however, the military police and native cavalry broke into open revolt, followed on the succeeding morning by the native infantry. On the 20th of June, news of the fall of Cawnpore arrived; and on the 29th, the enemy, 7000 strong, advanced upon Chinhat, a village on the Faizábád road, 8 miles from the Residency. Sir Henry Lawrence marched out and gave the enemy battle at that spot. The result proved disastrous to our arms, through the treachery of the Oudh artillery, and a retreat became necessary. The troops fell back on Lucknow, abandoned the Machí Bháwan, and concentrated all their strength upon the Residency. The siege of the enclosure began upon July 1. On the 2nd, as Sir Henry Lawrence lay on his bed, a shell entered the room, burst, and wounded him severely. He lingered till the morning of the 4th, and then died in great agony. Major Banks succeeded to the civil command, while the military authority devolved upon Brigadier Inglis. On July 20th, the enemy made an unsuccessful assault. Next day, Major Banks was shot, and the sole command was undertaken by Inglis. On the 10th of August, the mutineers attempted a second assault, which was again unsuccessful. The third assault took place on the 18th; but the enemy were losing heart as they found the small garrison so able to withstand them, and the repulse proved comparatively easy. Meanwhile, the British within were dwindling away and eagerly expecting reinforcements from Cawnpore. On September 5, news of the relieving force under Outram and Havelock reached the garrison by a faithful native messenger. On September 22, the relief arrived at the Alambágh, a walled garden on the Cawnpore road held by the

enemy in force. Havelock stormed the Alambágh, and on the 25th fought his way with continuous opposition through the narrow lanes of the city. On the 26th, he arrived at the gate of the Residency enclosure, and was welcomed by the gallant defenders within. General Neill fell during the action outside the walls. The sufferings of the besieged had been very great; but even after the first relief, it became clear that Lucknow could only be temporarily defended till the arrival of further reinforcements should allow the garrison to cut its way out. Outram, who had now re-assumed the command which he generously yielded to Havelock during the relief, accordingly fortified an enlarged area of the town, bringing many important outworks within the limits of defence; and the siege began once more till a second relieving party could set the besieged at liberty. Night and day the enemy kept up a continual firing against our position, while Outram retaliated by frequent sorties. Throughout October, the garrison continued its gallant defence, and a small party, shut up in the Alambágh, and cut off unexpectedly from the main body, also contrived to hold good its dangerous post. Meanwhile, Sir Colin Campbell's force had advanced from Cawnpore, and arrived at the Alambágh on the 10th of November. From the day of his landing at Calcutta, Sir Colin had never ceased in his endeavours to collect an army to relieve Lucknow, by gathering together the liberated Delhi field force and the fresh reinforcements from England. On the 12th, the main body threw itself into the Alambágh, after a smart skirmish with the rebels. Sir Colin next occupied the Dílkusha palace, south-east of the town, and then moved against the Martinière, which the enemy had fortified with guns in position. After carrying that post, he forded the canal, and on the 16th attacked the Sikandra Bágh, the chief rebel stronghold. The mutineers, driven to bay, fought desperately for their fortress, but before evening the whole place was in the hands of the British. As soon as Sir Colin Campbell reached the Moti Mahál, on the outskirts of the city proper, General Havelock came out from the Residency to meet him, and the second relief was successfully accomplished. Even now, however, it remained impossible to hold Lucknow, and Sir Colin Campbell determined, before undertaking any further offensive operations, to return to Cawnpore with his army, escorting the civilians, ladies, and children rescued from their long imprisonment in the Residency, with the view of forwarding them to Calcutta. On the morning of the 20th of November, the troops received orders to march for the Alambágh; and the Residency, the scene of so long and stirring a defence, was abandoned for a while to the rebel army. Before the final departure, Sir Henry Havelock died from an attack of dysentery. He was buried in the Alambágh, without any monument, a cross on a neighbouring tree alone marking for the time his last resting-place.

Sir James Outram, with 3500 men, held the Alambágh until the Commander-in-Chief could return to recapture the capital. The rebels used the interval well for the fortification of their stronghold to the utmost extent of their knowledge and power. They surrounded the greater part of the city, for a circuit of 20 miles, with an external line of defences, extending from the Gumti to the canal. An earthen parapet lay behind the canal; a second line of earthworks connected the Moti Mahál, the Mess-house, and the Imámbára; while the Kaisar Bágh constituted the rebel citadel. Stockade works and parapets closed every street; and loopholes in all the houses afforded an opportunity for defending the passage inch by inch. The computed strength of the insurgents amounted to 30,000 Sepoys, together with 50,000 volunteers; and they possessed 100 pieces of ordnance-guns, and mortars. On the 2nd of March 1858, Sir Colin Campbell found himself free enough in the rear to march once more upon Lucknow. He first occupied the Dilkusha, and posted guns to command the Martinière. On the 5th, Brigadier Franks arrived with 6000 men, half of them Gúrkhas sent by the Rájá of Nepál. Outram's force then crossed the Gumti, and advanced from the direction of Faizábád (Fyzábád), while the main body attacked from the south-east. After a week's hard fighting, from the 9th to the 15th March, the rebels were completely defeated, and their posts captured one by one. Most of the insurgents, however, escaped. As soon as it became clear that Lucknow had been permanently recovered, and that the enemy as a combined body had ceased to exist, Sir Colin Campbell broke up the British Oudh army, and the work of re-organization began. On the 18th of October 1858, the Governor-General and Lady Canning visited Lucknow in state, and found the city already recovering from the devastation to which it had been subjected.

Population.—The Census of 1869 returned the total population of Lucknow, including the cantonments, as 284,779. The native and civil population consisted of 273,126 persons, viz. 161,739 Hindus and 111,387 Muhammadans. There were also 3648 native soldiers, 4222 Europeans, 760 Eurasians, and 3023 prisoners and employés in jails. The European element is unusually large. The Hindus number three-fifths of the population, the Káyasth and Baniya castes forming a considerable proportion. Many pensioners of the British Government and of the former Oudh kings reside in the city. The Lucknow Musalmáns are chiefly Shiás, that being the recognised orthodox sect under the Nawábs.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The traffic of Oudh flows southward from Bahramghát and Faizábád through Lucknow to Cawnpore. Large quantities of grain and timber come in from the trans-Gogra Districts, while raw cotton, iron, and imported goods go northward in exchange.

The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, with its branches, has a station in the town, and gives direct communication with Benares, Bareilly, and Cawnpore, as well as connecting with the Great Trunk lines to Calcutta, Bombay, and the Punjab. The railway has given a great impetus to trade. In the year 1869-70, goods to the value of 73¾ *lákhs* of rupees (say £737,500) paid taxes at the octroi office. The chief taxable imports consist of wheat and other grains, *ghí*, *gúr* or molasses, sugar, spices, oil-seeds, and tobacco; besides which a large quantity of European manufactured articles are brought into the town. Manufactures are carried on to a considerable extent; the chief products being those which call for the usual oriental combination of patience, industry, minute manual skill, and delicate taste in the management of colour. Cotton muslins and other textile fabrics have a high reputation, some 30 small establishments being engaged in this trade. Gold and silver brocade, however, made of small wires, forms the leading manufacture. It is used for the numerous purposes of Indian pomp, and has a considerable market even in Europe. The gorgeous needlework embroidery upon velvet and cotton, with gold thread and coloured silks, also employs many hands. Lucknow jewellery, once very famous, has declined since the departure of the court. Glass-work and moulding in clay still maintain their original excellence. A Káshmíri colony has introduced a small manufacture of shawls. The only enterprise conducted by Europeans is an ice-making concern. The railway workshops, however, employ many hundreds of workmen, including 32 pupils of the Martinière school, besides other Europeans and Eurasians. The principal markets are—the grain markets of Fatehganj and Digbijáiganj, lying to the west; Rakábganj, at the south end of the Canning road; Saádatganj, in the south-west; and Sháhganj, near the new Victoria road. Imported cotton and salt are set down at Saádatganj. Molasses is sold at the Nakhkhás market, and leather in the Chikmandi.

Administration.—Before the recent amalgamation of Oudh with the North-Western Provinces, Lucknow formed the residence of the Chief Commissioner and his staff. It still ranks as the headquarters of officials whose authority extends over the whole Province. The Judicial Commissioner, the Deputy Inspector-General of Police, the Inspector of Education, the Examiner of Public Works Accounts, the Assistant Commissioner of Customs, the Chief Inspector of Post Offices, and the Conservator of Forests have their offices at Lucknow. The central officials of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway likewise have their posts in the city. The municipal police consists of 773 officers and men, together with 72 *chaukidárs* and *jamadárs*. Besides the Balrámpur hospital, already noticed, Lucknow contains 2 similar charitable institutions, the King's Hospital and the Government Dispensary. A lunatic asylum for the whole Province stands upon the eastern bank of the river,

near the Faizábád (Fyzábád) road. The municipal revenue in 1870-71 amounted to £20,018, of which £16,230 was derived from octroi.

Education, etc.—Canning College, supported by the *tálukdárs*, and assisted by a grant-in-aid from Government, was established in 1864. It contains five departments, and is under the management of a committee, with the Commissioner of the Division as President. The total number of pupils is 768, of whom 56 belong to the College Department, 317 to the school, 123 to the Oriental Department, 226 to the Preparatory, and 46 to the Law Department. The Martinière College provides education for the sons of soldiers, and has also a girls' school in connection. The Wards' Institution takes charge of minors whose estates are under Government management. The American Mission supplies 7 schools, and the English Church Mission 5. Eleven other schools derive support from provincial, municipal, and private funds. The Loretto Convent and 25 other establishments offer education for girls. Lucknow, in spite of its comparative decay, still ranks as the admitted capital of Hindustáni music, song, and poetry. The Lucknow native theatres also maintain a high position in native opinion. The subjects for the dramas are largely derived from English life in India.

Military Statistics.—Lucknow forms the headquarters of the Oudh Division. The cantonment is healthily and well situated, 3 miles east of the city. The garrison usually comprises 3 batteries of British artillery, 1 regiment of British cavalry, 2 of British infantry, 1 of Native cavalry, and 2 of Native infantry. A battery of artillery and a detachment of Native infantry occupy the Machí Bháwan fort, and act as a garrison to command the city; but it has been proposed to give up the ancient stronghold and erect a new fort upon some other site.

Ludhiána.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 30° 33′ and 31° 1′ N. lat., and between 75° 24′ 30″ and 76° 27′ E. long. Area (1879), 1368 square miles; pop. (1868), 583,245 persons. Ludhiána is a District of the Umballa (Ambála) Division. It is bounded on the north by the river Sutlej (Satlaj); on the east by the District of Umballa; on the south by the Native States of Patiála, Nábha, and Maler Kotla; and on the west by the District of Firozpur (Ferozepore). The administrative headquarters are at the town of LUDHIANA, which is centrally situated a few miles south of the Sutlej. Several outlying villages belonging to Ludhiána are scattered among the native territories to the south-west.

Physical Aspects.—The surface of Ludhiána consists for the most part of a broad plain, nowhere interrupted by hills or rivers, and stretching northward from the native borders to the ancient bed of the Sutlej (Satlaj). Its soil is composed of a rich clay, broken by large

patches of shifting sand, which has drifted here and there into ridges of considerable height. The distribution of the sand-layer is singularly capricious, so that a distance of only a hundred yards may carry the observer from fertile gardens into the midst of a deep and barren desert. On the eastern edge, towards Umballa (Ambála) and the hills, the soil improves greatly, as the clay is there surmounted by a bed of rich mould, suitable for the cultivation of cotton and sugar-cane; but towards the west, the sand occurs in union with the superficial clay, and forms a light friable soil, on which cereals form the most profitable crop. Even here, however, the earth is so retentive of moisture that good harvests are reaped from fields which appear to the eye mere stretches of dry and sandy waste, but are covered, after the autumn rains, by waving sheets of wheat and millet. These southern uplands descend to the valley of the Sutlej by an abrupt terrace, which marks the former bed of the river. At its foot lies a half-deserted water-course, still full at all but the driest seasons, and once the main channel of the Sutlej. Now, however, the principal stream has shifted to the opposite side of the valley, leaving a broad alluvial strip, some 10 miles in width, between its ancient and its modern bed. This region, known as the *bet*, forms the wider channel of the river, and is completely inundated after heavy rains. It is intersected in every direction by minor water-courses or *nálas*, and, being composed of recent alluvium, is for the most part very fertile, though in scattered portions its fruitfulness is destroyed by the occurrence of a deleterious saline efflorescence. The Sutlej itself is navigable for boats of small burden, but its value as a water-way is inconsiderable in this portion of its course. A branch of the Sirhind Canal, now in course of construction, will enter the District from UMBALLA (Ambála), and irrigate a large part of the western *parganás*. At present, irrigation is almost entirely confined to wells. Ludhiána, as might be expected, is singularly bare of trees. In the *bet* are a few well-grown *philkans*, while *pípals* and *banians* are to be found near the village tanks; but as a rule only a few patches of scrubby *dhák* jungle break the general monotony of the sky-line. Attention, however, has been lately directed to this subject, and groves are now growing up around all the villages, which will doubtless do something to improve the appearance of this level and arid District.

History.—Though the present town of Ludhiána dates no further back than the 15th century, other cities in the District can claim a much greater antiquity. At Sunet, close to the modern station, are ruins of an extensive brick-built town, whose greatness had already passed away before the period of Muhammadan invasion; and the old Hindu city of Máchiwára is of still earlier date, being mentioned in the *Mahábhárata*. During the Musalmán epoch, the history of the District is bound up with that of the Ráis of Ráikot, a family of con-

verted Rájputs, who received the country as a fief under the Sayyid dynasty, about the year 1445. The town of Ludhiána was founded in 1480 by two of the Lodhi race (then ruling at Delhi), from whom it derives its name. It was built in great part from the pre-historic bricks of Sunet, still bearing their rude trade-mark in the impression of three human fingers. The Lodhís continued in possession of the town until 1620, when it again fell into the hands of their neighbours, the Ráis of Ráikot. Throughout the palmy days of the Mughal Empire, the Ráikot family held the greater part of the modern District, together with portions of the surrounding country. But the Síkhs took advantage of the troubled period which accompanied the Mughal decadence to establish their supremacy south of the Sutlej. Several of their chieftains made encroachments on the domains of the Ráis, who were only able to hold their own by the aid of George Thomas, the famous Irish adventurer of Hariána. Until 1802, the Ráis retained possession of Ludhiána, Ráikot, and other territories, though hard pressed by the neighbouring Síkh princes. In that year, however, the last native chief, Rái Alyás, died, and was succeeded by his mother. Thereupon Ranjít Sinh crossed the Sutlej in 1806, reduced the obstinate Muhammadan family, and distributed their territory amongst his own co-religionists. The Rání was permitted to retain the ancestral demesne of Ráikot, where her representatives still reside; together with some other small estates. In 1809, the British protection was extended to the cis-Sutlej States (*see* UMBALLA), and the Rání endeavoured to obtain the intervention of the Political Agent, for the purpose of regaining her lost dominions. Government, however, necessarily recognising the rights of *de facto* occupiers, confirmed the titles of Ranjít Sinh's grantees. Ludhiána was occupied by a military force at the commencement of the protectorate, compensation being made to its Síkh possessor for the occupation. This arrangement was at first regarded as merely temporary, but the nucleus of the present District having lapsed to Government in 1835, by the death of its owner without direct heirs, it was not found necessary to withdraw from the occupation. After the first Síkh war, a considerable enlargement of the territory took place, through the confiscation of estates belonging to the Khálsa, the Lodhís, and others. These were taken over by Government in March 1846. Other villages gradually lapsed to us, and in 1850 the District finally assumed its present proportions. Since the British occupation, the country has grown in wealth and population, but its history has been happily marked by few noticeable events of any sort. The opening of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, and the commencement of the projected canal, are the only incidents which have broken the quiet course of its peaceful annals. The town of Ludhiána has been greatly benefited by the settlement of the exiled royal family

from Kábul, in whose train a large colony of Kashmírís and Patháns have followed, and introduced their staple industry of weaving into the District.

Population.—The first enumeration of the people was that of 1855, which returned the total number of inhabitants at 527,722, or 388 to the square mile. These figures, however, are suspected of being slightly in excess of the real numbers. A second Census was taken in 1868, over an area of 1359 square miles, and showed a total of 583,245 persons, or 429 to the square mile. The increase for the thirteen years accordingly amounted to 55,523 persons, or 10·52 per cent. upon the former population; and there is reason to suppose that the actual increase was somewhat greater than these figures represent. The number of villages in 1868 was found to be 879, and that of houses 151,934. From these data, the following averages can be obtained:—Persons per square mile, 429; villages per square mile, 0·65; persons per village, 663; houses per square mile, 111·80; persons per house, 3·83. Classified according to sex, there were 319,342 males and 263,903 females; proportion of males, 54·75 per cent. The preponderance of males is greatest amongst the Hindus and least amongst the Muhammadans. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 108,709; females, 91,327; total children, 200,036, or 34·29 per cent. of the inhabitants. As regards religious distinctions, the Hindus numbered 219,371 persons, or 37·61 per cent.; the Muhammadans, 206,603, or 35·42 per cent.; the Síkhs, 95,413, or 16·36 per cent.; while the various sects, classed together as 'others' in the Census Report, formed an aggregate of 61,858 persons, or 10·59 per cent. In the ethnical classification of the inhabitants, the Játs rank first both in number (205,304) and in agricultural importance; they form one-third of the whole population, and nearly two-thirds of the cultivating class. As a race, the Játs are patient, laborious, and enterprising. They are evenly distributed over the whole District, with the exception of the Sutlej valley; they own 563 villages. The Gújars come next, with 30,009 persons; they are for the most part Musalmáns, and they have proprietary rights in 75 villages. The Rájputs number 23,961, and cluster thickly in the fertile strip by the bank of the Sutlej. Though they hold the richest portion of the District, they are here as elsewhere careless and improvident cultivators, and ill fitted for any but a predatory *régime.* Most of them are Musalmáns in creed, only 1023 being recorded as adherents of the ancestral faith. The Bráhmans muster strong, numbering 21,165, but their social importance is small, considering their sacred caste, and they own but a single village. The mercantile classes are represented by 15,251 Kshattriyas and 8174 Banias. There are also 5549 Kashmírís, chiefly confined to the town of Ludhiána, where they are employed

in weaving shawls and woollen goods. The District contained 4 towns in 1868 with a population exceeding 5000—namely, LUDHIANA, 39,983; RAIKOT, 9165; JAGRAON, 7096; and MACHIWARA, 6062. These four towns have an aggregate population of 62,330 persons, or 10·68 per cent. of the whole District. Panjábí is the language of the rural communities, but Urdu is spoken in the towns, and is generally comprehensible to the peasantry.

Agriculture.—In spite of the unpromising appearance of its soil, Ludhiána is a flourishing agricultural District, a result which must be largely attributed to the untiring diligence of its Ját cultivators. Almost all the available land has been brought under the plough, and in many villages no waste ground is left for pasturage, the cattle being fed from cultivated produce. The total area under cultivation amounted at the last Settlement to 729,890 acres. Cereals are chiefly grown in the western part of the District, while sugar-cane and cotton can be raised on the richer soil of the eastern *parganás.* The area under each crop in 1872-73 was as follows:—*Rabí* or spring crops—wheat, 198,279 acres; barley, 30,620 acres; gram, 162,649 acres; poppy, 576 acres: *Kharíf* or rain crops—*joár*, 129,589 acres; Indian corn, 49,047 acres; *moth*, 55,293; and cotton, 15,894 acres. The seasons are so variable that no fixed periods can be assigned for the different sowings and reapings. In some years, the rainfall fails so utterly that the soil presents the appearance of an unbroken desert, except where an occasional well, surrounded by a patch of carefully tended vegetation, throws up in stronger relief the neighbouring barrenness. Irrigation is as yet confined to the leathern bucket; and the painstaking toil of the Játs in watering their arid fields is beyond all praise. Wells are held in shares by the villagers, each proprietor being permitted to draw water for a certain number of hours out of the twenty-four, in proportion to the share to which he is hereditarily entitled; and the labour of watering never ceases by day or by night. The use of manure is thoroughly appreciated. This account, however, refers only to the general upland plain. The *bet* or valley of the Sutlej is but poorly tilled by its Rájput proprietors; and the scattered British villages, which lie isolated among the native territory to the south, can obtain no water except at such depths below the surface as render it practically unavailable. The total irrigated area amounted at the Settlement to 23,148 acres. In spite of their industrious habits, many of the peasantry are deeply involved in debt, and the rate of interest is as high here as elsewhere. The mode of land tenure known as *bháyáchára* or brotherhood is most prevalent amongst the village communities, but the *jágírdárs* or territorial landlords, representatives of the independent Síkh chieftains, form a powerful and influential body. Most of the land is held by tenants-at-will. Rents vary with the nature and capabilities of the soil;

ground fit for sugar-cane or tobacco fetches £1, 4s. 8d. per acre, irrigated wheat lands bring in from 11s. to 18s., and dry lands from 7s. to 12s. Agricultural labourers are paid in grain; cash wages prevail in the towns, at the rate of from 3d. to 4½d. per diem. Prices in 1873 ruled as follows:—Wheat, 23 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 10½d. per cwt.; Indian corn, 32 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 6d. per cwt.; *joár*, 35 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 2⅜d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Ludhiána is comparatively free from the pressing danger of famine, though it suffers much from drought. The Settlement Officer is of opinion that no continuance of bad seasons would in any human probability necessitate an importation of grain. Prices may vary from very low rates to famine quotations, but the produce of the District would suffice for home consumption, even under the most trying circumstances. The town of Ludhiána is now one of the principal entrepôts for the grain trade of the Punjab, and the communications by rail, road, and river would be sufficient in the last resort to avert the extremity of famine.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The exports of Ludhiána are chiefly confined to its raw material, including grain, cotton, wool, saltpetre, and indigo; the principal imports are English goods, spices, and the red madder dye, which are brought up the Sutlej to the *ghát* opposite Ludhiána. Besides the headquarters town, Jagráon, Ráikot, and Máchiwára are centres of local trade. The total annual value of the exports for the whole District is estimated at £377,120; that of the imports at £365,552. The manufactures are by no means inconsiderable, including shawls, *pashmína* cloth, stockings, gloves, cotton goods, furniture, carriages, and fire-arms. The silk trade is carried on at eight large factories and 408 private looms, giving employment in all to nearly 3000 hands. The establishments for weaving cotton number 48. There are several metalled roads in Ludhiána, including a portion of the Grand Trunk Road; and the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway passes through the centre of the District, with stations at Khanna, Sánhewál, and Ludhiána. Its opening has given a great impetus to the grain trade, which is now concentrated in the town of Ludhiána. The District could boast of 6 printing-presses in 1874, the most important of which were at the American Presbyterian Mission and at the jail; the others belonged to native proprietors.

Administration.—The administrative staff of Ludhiána comprises a Deputy Commissioner, with an Assistant and 2 extra-Assistants, a Judge of the Small Cause Court, and 3 *tahsíldárs*, besides the usual medical and constabulary officers. The total revenue in 1872-73 amounted to £103,795; of which £85,215, or about four-fifths, was contributed by the land tax. The other principal items were stamps and local rates. The incidence of the land revenue per acre is heavier

than in any other District of the Punjab, but the collections are made without difficulty. For police purposes, the District is divided into 7 police circles (*thánás*). The imperial police force amounted in 1873 to 451 officers and men, supplemented by a municipal establishment of 108 constables, and a special canal force of 13 men. The whole machinery for the protection of persons and property accordingly consisted of 572 persons, being 1 policeman to every 2·42 square miles of the area and every 1041 of the population. The number of persons brought to trial for all offences, great or small, committed in Ludhiána during the year 1871 was 2373, or 1 in every 245 inhabitants. In 1872, the daily average number of prisoners in the District jail was 266. The cost per inmate was £4, 9s. 10⅝d., and the average earnings of each prisoner were 8s. 11⅜d. Education has made great advances during the last ten years. In 1873, there were 184 schools in operation, of which 68 were in receipt of Government aid; the number of pupils on the rolls amounted to 6733, and the sum expended upon instruction from the public funds reached a total of £1353. The District is subdivided into 3 *tahsíls* and 19 *parganás*, owned by 83,067 shareholders. Municipalities have been established at Ludhiána, Jagráon, Ráikot, and Máchiwára, and a municipal income is also realized at Khanna and Bhilolpur. The aggregate revenue of these towns amounted in 1871-72 to £3277, being at the average rate of 11⅜d. per head of their population.

Medical Aspects.—In the upland portion of the District, the atmosphere is dry and healthy, being free from the malarious effluvia which are so general a cause of febrile disorders on the plains of India. In the Sutlej valley, however, the network of water-courses renders the air extremely noxious after the floods of the rainy season, and deaths from fever are frequent, often assuming an epidemic form. The temperature varies from intense heat in the summer months to comparatively severe cold in December and January. In 1872, the mean temperature was 87·59° F. in May, 85·67° in July, and 54·85° in December; while the maximum and minimum points reached were 117° and 31° respectively. The rainfall was 22 inches in 1870-71, 16·9 inches in 1871-72, and 45·2 inches in 1872-73; annual average, 28 inches. The total number of deaths recorded in 1872 amounted to 16,257, or 28 per thousand; of which 10,180 were due to fever. Ophthalmia is of common occurrence, owing to the quantity of sand-dust with which the atmosphere is laden during the prevalence of dry winds. There are 2 Government charitable dispensaries in the District, from which 16,268 patients obtained assistance in 1872.

Ludhiána.—Central *tahsíl* of Ludhiána District, Punjab, lying between 30° 45′ 30″ and 31° 1′ N. lat., and between 75° 40′ 30″ and 76° 12′ E. long.

Ludhiána.—Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Ludhiána District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 55′ 25″ N., long. 75° 53′ 30″ E.; pop. (1868), 39,983, consisting of 10,208 Hindus, 27,860 Muhammadans, 45 Síkhs, 79 Christians, and 1791 'others.' Situated on the high south bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), 8 miles from the present bed of the river. Railway station on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. Stands on low ground, with some large open streets, but a greater number of small and tortuous alleys. The fort lies to the north of the town on an open and detached space, cleared after the Mutiny. Ludhiána was founded in 1480 by Yusaf and Nihang, princes of the Lodi family, then reigning at Delhi. In 1620, it fell into the hands of the Ráis of Ráikot, who held it until the end of the last century, when Ranjít Sính expelled them, and made over the town to Rájá Bhág Sinh of Jhínd. In 1809, General Ochterlony occupied it as Political Agent for the cis-Sutlej States, at first only as a temporary cantonment; but Government afterwards compensated the Rájá of Jhínd for the loss, and when the territory lapsed in 1834, retained the town as a military station. The troops were removed in 1854, but a small detachment continued to garrison the fort. The shrine of a Muhammadan saint, Shaikh Abdul Kádir-i-Jaláni, yearly attracts an important religious gathering, frequented by Hindus and Musalmáns alike. The Muhammadan element preponderates strongly in the city, owing to the large number of Kashmírí and Pathán settlers, the latter being followers of the exiled royal family of Kábul, whose head, Sháhzáda Sháhpur, resides at Ludhiána as a pensioner of the British Government. The Kashmírís retain their hereditary skill as weavers of shawls and *pashmína* cloth, the value of the quantity exported in 1871-72 being returned at £13,350. Shawls of the soft Rámpur wool, cotton cloths, scarves, turbans, furniture, and carriages also form large items in the thriving trade of the town. Since the opening of the railway, Ludhiána has become a great central grain mart, having extensive export transactions both with the north and south. The public buildings include the fort, District court-house, and small cause court, railway station, *tahsíli*, police station, *dák* bungalow, *sarái*, jail, and Government charitable dispensary. The American Presbyterian Mission has a church and school, with a small colony of native Christians. The town bears a bad reputation for unhealthiness. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £3193, or 1s. 7d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Lughási.—One of the Native States in Bundelkhand, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. It is bounded on the south-west, south, and south-east by the Chhatarpur State, and on all other sides by Hamírpur District. The chief town of the same name, having a *bázár* and fort, lies on the route from Kalpi to Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), 86 miles south of the former and 183 miles

north of the latter. When the British Government assumed supremacy in Bundelkhand, the ancestor of the present chief was found in possession of 11 villages, the title over which was confirmed to him on his executing the usual deed of allegiance. During the Mutiny in 1857, the chief, Sardár Sinh, was loyal to the British Government, although half of the villages of Lughási were laid waste by the rebels in consequence of his fidelity. In reward for his services, Sardár Sinh received the title of Ráo Bahádur, a *jágír* of £200 a year, a dress of honour, and the privilege of adoption, which was afterwards confirmed by *sanad.* The present chief, Ráo Bahádur Khet Sinh, grandson of Sardár Sinh, is a Bundela Hindu, and was born about 1856. The area of the State is 40 square miles; estimated pop. (1875), 5000; estimated revenue, £1000. The military force amounts to 5 guns and 135 infantry.

Lugu.—Detached hill south of the central plateau of Hazáribágh District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 46′ 45″ N., long. 85° 44′ 30″ E. A natural fortress, forming a remarkable feature in this District. The northern face has a bold scarp of 2200 feet in height; and the highest point is 3203 feet above the sea.

Luká (or *Luba*).—River in Assam, which rises in the north of Cáchár District, and, flowing south-west through the Jáintiá Hills, falls into the main stream of Surma, near the market village of Mulághul in Sylhet District.

Lumbaiong.—Mountain range in the Khási Hills, Assam; highest peak, 4646 feet above sea level.

Lunáwára.—Native State within the British Political Agency of Rewá Kánta in the Province of Guzerat, Bombay. Bounded on the north by Dungarpur State, one of the Rájputána chiefships; on the east by other States of Rewá Kánta; on the south by the Godhra Subdivision of the British District of Panch Mahális; and on the west by Edar State (Máhi Kánta) and Bálásinor (Rewá Kánta). The State lies between 20° 50′ and 23° 16′ N. lat., and between 73° 21′ and 73° 47′ E. long.; area, 388 square miles; pop. (1872), 74,813. Lunáwára is irregular in shape, and has many outlying villages, the territory being much intermixed with that of Bálásinor and with the British Pánch Mahális. The extreme length from north to south is 34 miles, and the extreme breadth from east to west 25 miles. About one-third of the State has been alienated, some lands having been granted in free gift, and others on service or other tenures. The soil is generally stony, the hills are low and scantily covered with timber. Irrigation is chiefly from wells; though there are many reservoirs, and the river Máhi flows through the territory. The climate is perhaps somewhat cooler than in the neighbouring parts of Guzerat. The prevailing disease is fever. Cereals and timber are the chief products. A well-frequented route,

between Guzerat and Málwa, passes through Lunáwára. Until 1825, the State was under the Political Agency of Máhi Kánta. The Chief is descended from the Rájput dynasty that ruled at Anhilwára Pátan, and his ancestors are said to have established themselves at Vírpur about 1151. In 1434, the family removed to Lunáwára, having in all probability been driven across the Máhi by the increasing power of the Muhammadan kings of Guzerat. Lunáwára was tributary both to the Gáekwár and to Sindhia; but the rights of the latter ruler were transferred to the British Government in 1819, and the claims of the Gáekwár were finally entrusted to us in 1822. The present (1876-77) chief is Máhárána Wakhat Sinhjí, a Hindu of the Solanki Rájput caste. He is a minor of seventeen years, and is under tuition at the Rájkumár College at Rájkot. He is entitled to a salute of 9 guns, and has power to try his own subjects only for capital offences without the express permission of the Political Agent. He enjoys (1879) an estimated gross yearly revenue of £12,900, and pays a tribute of £1800 jointly to the British Government and the Gáekwár of Baroda; military force, 240 men. During the minority of the Chief, the State is under the direct management of the British Government; though, since 1st May 1879, the young Chief has been admitted to a share in the administration to prepare him for his future duties. The family hold no title authorizing adoption, but they follow the rule of primogeniture. There are 11 schools, with a total number of 809 pupils.

Lunáwára.—Capital of Lunáwára State, Rewá Kánta, Bombay; a fortified town, situated in lat. 23° 8′ 30″ N., and long. 73° 39′ 30″ E., about 4 miles east of the confluence of the Máhi and Panám rivers, and a mile north of the latter stream. Pop. (1875), 9662. The town was founded by Ráná Bhím Sinhjí in 1434. According to the local legend, the chief one day went hunting across the Máhi, and, having become accidentally separated from his companions, found himself near the hut of a *sádhu* or ascetic. He presented himself before the recluse, saluted him reverentially, and remained standing until bidden to be seated. The *sádhu* was pleased with his demeanour, and, auguring a great future for him and his descendants, advised him to build a city in the forest. He told him to proceed in an easterly direction, and to mark the point where a hare would cross his path. The Ráná did as directed; a hare soon jumping out of a bush. The Ráná pursued and killed it with a spear, and marked the spot, which, it is said, is now within the precincts of the palace. The *sádhu* was a devotee of the god Luneswar, in honour of whom the Ráná called the town Lunáwára. The shrine of the god still stands outside the Darkuli gate.

Lushái (or *Kuki*) **Hills.**—A wild and imperfectly known tract of country on the north-east frontier of India, extending along the southern

border of the Assam District of Cáchár and the eastern border of the Bengal District of Chittagong. On the east, the Lushái Hills stretch away into the unexplored mountains of Independent Burma. This extensive region is occupied by a numerous family of tribes, who are known to us indifferently as Lusháis or Kukis. The name 'Kuki' is found in early records of the last century, and is still commonly applied to those colonies who have crossed the frontier and settled within British territory; but the appellation of 'Lushái' has won official recognition since the Lushái expedition of 1871-72. Among themselves these tribes are known by a variety of names, sometimes derived from that of their prominent chiefs. The most northerly tribe in the mountains between the State of Manipur and the Nagá Hills is known as the Quoireings. South of these are the Kupúí, who are subjects of Manipur. The mountains south of Cáchár are occupied by the Lusháis proper, under three principal chiefs named Vonpilal, Páibái, and Vonolel. On the frontier of Chittagong, the three best known clans are the Haulongs, the Sylus, and the followers of Rattan Puiya. All these tribes are nomadic in their habits, and subject to successive waves of migration. It is said that at the present time the entire race of the Lusháis is being forced southwards into British territory, under pressure from the Soktis, who are advancing upon them from Independent Burma. The principal characteristic common to all the Lusháis, in which they markedly differ from the other tribes on the Assam frontier, is their feudal organization under hereditary chiefs. Each village is under the military command of a chief or *lál*, who must come of a certain royal stock, but who exercises his authority by the voluntary submission of his subjects, as the number of his followers depends upon the success which attends his border forays. The chief exercises absolute power in the village; and his dignity and wealth are maintained by a large number of slaves, and by fixed contributions of labour from his free subjects. Like all other hill tribes, the Lusháis cultivate rice and a few more scanty crops on clearings in the jungle, according to the *júm* or nomadic system of agriculture; but their main occupation is hunting and warfare. Their domestic animals are the *gayál* or wild cow, the hill goat, and the pig. The *gayál* is not kept for agriculture or for milking, but only for slaughter at solemn sacrifices. Women are held in some sort of estimation, though they perform the whole burden of both in-door and out-door life. They are skilled at weaving a peculiar kind of rug or *púrí*, which forms to some extent an article of export. The other articles which the Lusháis bring down to the markets on the plains are caoutchouc, ivory, raw cotton, and bees-wax, in exchange for which they take away rice, salt, tobacco, brass-ware, cloth, and silver. Both sexes wear a homespun sheet of cotton cloth, which is generally dyed blue.

The women distend the lobes of their ears to an enormous extent with discs of wood or ivory. The average height of the men is about 5 feet 8 inches. They are described as well made and wonderfully muscular, but of a sulky and forbidding cast of countenance.

From the earliest times, the Lusháis have been notorious for their sanguinary raids into British territory, which are said to be instigated by their desire to obtain human heads for use at their funeral ceremonies. The Districts of Cáchár, Sylhet, Tipperah, and Chittagong, and the States of Manipur and Hill Tipperah, have repeatedly suffered from these raids. The first of which we have record was in 1777, under the Governor-Generalship of Warren Hastings, when the Chief of Chittagong requested the presence of a detachment of sepoys 'for the protection of the inhabitants against the Kukis.' In 1849, a colony of Lusháis, settled within the frontier of Cáchár, was attacked by their independent kinsmen, and forced to migrate northwards across the Barák river, where they now live as peaceable British subjects, and are known as 'Old Kukis.' In 1860, a raid was made upon the District of Tipperah, in which 186 Bengálí villagers were massacred and 100 carried away into captivity. Retributive expeditions, consisting of small forces of sepoys, were repeatedly sent to punish these raids, but, owing to the difficult nature of the country and the fugitive tactics of the enemy, no permanent advantage was gained. At last, the disturbed state of the frontier attracted the attention of the supreme Government. A military demonstration in 1869 had entirely failed in its object. Relying upon their belief in the impracticable character of their native country, the Lusháis made a series of simultaneous attacks in January 1871 upon British villages in Cáchár, Sylhet, and Tipperah, as well as on the independent State of Manipur. In Cáchár a party of Haulongs surprised the tea-garden of Alexandrapur. The tea-planter was killed, and his daughter, Mary Winchester, was carried off as a hostage. The outpost of Monierkhál repelled a number of attacks, lasting through two days, made by a second body of Lusháis from the eastern tribes, who finally retired with a large amount of plunder, including many coolies and guns. Lord Mayo, who was then Viceroy, resolved to make a vigorous effort to stop these inroads, once and for all. The details of a punitory expedition were organized under the immediate control of Lord Napier, the Commander-in-Chief. The little army was composed of 2 Gurkhá battalions, 2 regiments of Punjáb and 2 of Bengal Native infantry, with 2 companies of Sappers and Miners, and a strong detachment of the Pesháwar Mountain Battery. This was divided into two columns. One was to advance from Cáchár under General Bourchier, with Mr. Edgar as Political Agent; the other, commanded by General Brownlow, and accompanied by Captain Lewin, was to operate from Chittagong against the Haulong

tribes. The Cáchár column started from Silchár in November 1871, and entered the Lushái Hills at Tipái-mukh. From that point it advanced for about 110 miles southward through country previously unexplored, encountering considerable resistance from the enemy. Finally, the Lushái chiefs accepted the terms imposed upon them. The return march was effected without firing a shot, and Tipái-mukh was regained in the beginning of March 1872. The operations of the Chittagong column were equally successful. It penetrated northwards for about 83 miles. The surveying staff that accompanied it triangulated an area of 3000 square miles, and completed the connection between the Districts of Chittagong and Cáchár. Fifteen powerful chiefs tendered their personal submission; Mary Winchester was recovered, and upwards of 100 British subjects were liberated from captivity. The actual loss in fighting was small, but a large number both of soldiers and camp followers died from cholera.

Since the date of this expedition, the Lusháis have remained quiet along the entire frontier. At the same time active measures have been taken to open commercial intercourse between them and the people of the plains. On the Cáchár side, 3 *bázárs* have been established—at Tipái-mukh, Lushái-hát, and Jhaluachará—each at the point where a river has its exit from the hills. Trade by barter is briskly carried on, and the Lushái chiefs frequently send down friendly messages. It has been estimated that the annual value of the business done at these three marts is about £10,000. On the Chittagong frontier, similar *bázárs* have been opened at Kasalang and Rángámátí. Though the Lushái expedition of 1871-72 was undoubtedly a sharp measure of retribution, its policy has been entirely justified by the result. See *The Hill Tracts of Chittagong and the Dwellers therein*, by Captain Lewin (Calcutta, 1869), and *A Narrative of the Lushái Expedition*, by Lieut. Woodthorpe.

Lweng-pyeng.—Revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. The south and east portions are under rice cultivation; the rest is covered with tree forest, in which *pyeng-gado* is found. Pop. (1876), 2846; gross revenue, £753.

Lyng-ker-dem.—Mountain range in the District of the Khási and Jáintia Hills, Assam. Elevation of highest peak above sea level, 5000 feet.

M.

Machári.—Village in Ulwur (Alwár) State, Rájputána; situated in lat. 27° 15′ N., and long. 76° 42′ E.; 76 miles south-west of Muttra (Mathura). Machári was the residence of Sher Sháh's famous *wazir* Hemu, and was only captured by Akbar's troops after a fierce resistance.

It was occupied by Ráo Anand Sinh, son of Ráo Kalián Sinh, founder of the Ulwur (Alwár) family, about 1671 A.D.; and was the headquarters of the family until the acquisition of the fort of Ulwur in 1775 A.D. Machári now (1878) contains 2352 inhabitants, occupying 593 houses.

Máchhgáon.—Port in Cuttack District, Bengal; situated in lat. 19° 58′ N., and long. 86° 21′ E.; 9 miles from the mouth of the Deví estuary. A rising town, with extensive rice trade. Sea-going brigs cannot get up to the port, but float in with the tide as far as possible, and are laden from country boats.

Máchhgáon Canal.—One of the canals of the Orissa system (*see* CUTTACK DISTRICT), connecting Cuttack town with Máchhgáon at the mouth of the DEVI river. It starts from the Táldandá Canal at Bírbátí (lat. 20° 28′ N., long. 86° 0′ 30″ E.), and was opened in 1871 as far as Singápur, where it crosses the branch of the Kátjurí, which falls into the Mahánadi at Jáyapur. It joins the Deví river in lat. 20° 3′ N., and long. 86° 17′ E. Total length of the canal, 53 miles; 77 miles of irrigation distributaries were completed at the end of 1874-75.

Machhligáon.—Village in Gonda District, Oudh. Pop. (1869), 1751, chiefly Hindus. A famous temple dedicated to Karhuanáth Mahádeo is situated near the village, and a considerable fair is held every year on the occasion of the *Sivarátri* festival.

Machhlishahr.—South-western *tahsíl* of Jaunpur District, North-Western Provinces, lying for the most part south of the river Gumti. Area, 353 square miles, of which 187 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 192,113; land revenue, £28,238; total Government revenue, £30,322; rental paid by cultivators, £46,698; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 6d.

Machhlishahr.—Town in Jaunpur District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Pop. (1872), 8715, consisting of 3932 Hindus and 4783 Musalmáns. Stands on the open plain, 7 miles south of the Sai river, and 2 miles north of the Pilli. *Tahsíli*, post office, Government charitable dispensary.

Machhreta.—*Parganá* in Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Rámkot, on the east by the Saráyan river, on the south by Gundlamau, and on the west by Kurauna and Misrikh. Pop. (1869), 37,677, viz. 34,921 Hindus and 2756 Muhammadans; area, 108 square miles, or 68,999 acres, of which 43,292 acres are cultivated, 16,682 cultivable, 552 *muáfi*, and 1473 uncultivable and waste; average incidence of land tax, 2s. 0⅞d. per acre of total area, 2s. 4¾d. per acre of assessed area, and 3s. 5½d. per acre of cultivated area. The *parganá* was first constituted by Rájá Todar Mall, in whose time the lands were held by an Ahban Rájá, Kesri Sinh by name. He was deposed by Akbar, and his estates conferred on two Káyasths, whose father had

been *diwán* to the Ahban chieftain, and had been put to death by him. On their death, various petty *zamíndárs* possessed themselves of the estate. Out of 125 villages comprising the *parganá*, 99 are held by Rájputs, 10 by Káyasths, 6½ by Bráhmans, 2 by a Bairági, and 7½ by a Muhammadan *tálukdár*.

Machhreta.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh; situated on the road from Khairábád to Nímkhár, on the Gumti, 16 miles south of Sítápur town. Lat. 27° 25′ N., long. 80° 41′ E.; pop. (1869), 4578, viz. 2808 Hindus and 1770 Muhammadans. Daily *bázár;* manufactures of coarse cloth and sugar.

Machídá.—Small chiefship attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces; 25 miles north-west of Sambalpur. Pop. (1872), 539, residing in 5 villages; area, 6 square miles. Machída, the chief village (lat. 21° 49′ N., long. 83° 38′ E.), has a school, with about 30 pupils. The family of the chief is of Gond descent, and obtained the estate a century ago. Formerly turbulent and lawless, they have now settled down to peaceful pursuits.

Machiwára.—Municipal town in Ludhiána District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 55′ N., long. 76° 14′ 30″ E.; pop. (1868), 6062, consisting of 1823 Hindus, 3713 Muhammadans, 250 Síkhs, and 276 'others.' Situated on the high southern bank of the Sutlej, 23 miles south of Ludhiána. Ancient Hindu city, mentioned in the *Mahábhárata*, but now commercially unimportant. Two very early mosques, several Hindu shrines, and a very sacred Síkh *Gurudwára.* Considerable centre of sugar manufacture. Police station; school-house. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £288, or 11⅜d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Mackeson, Fort.—Small frontier station in Pesháwar District, Punjab; stands at the foot of the Khattak range, not far from the mouth of the Kháibar (Khyber). Lat. 33° 45′ 45″ N., long. 71° 36′ 15″ E. Usual garrison (1876), 55 horse and foot.

Madahpurá.—Subdivision of Bhágalpur District, Bengal, lying between 25° 24′ and 26° 7′ N. lat., and between 86° 38′ 45″ and 87° 9′ E. long. Area, 872 square miles; townships, 375; houses, 70,893. Pop. (1872), 391,086—of whom 365,906, or 93·6 per cent., were Hindus; 25,088, or 6·4 per cent., Muhammadans; 54 Christians; and 38 'others.' Proportion of males in total population, 50·9 per cent.; average density of population, 448 per square mile; average number of villages per square mile, 0·43; persons per village, 1043; houses per square mile, 81; inmates per house, 5·5. This Subdivision comprises the 2 police circles (*thánás*) of Kishenganj and Madahpurá. In 1870-71, there was 1 magisterial and revenue court, a regular police of 50 men, and a rural force 657 strong; cost of Subdivisional administration returned at £3656, 12s.

Madahpurá. — Headquarters station of Madahpurá Subdivision, Bhágalpur District, Bengal; situated in lat. 25° 55′ 40″ N., and long. 86° 49° 51″ E., on the right bank of the river Parwán. Pop. (1872), 3499. On the high-road to Supul, and about 52 miles from Bhágalpur town. Contains the usual Subdivisional buildings, *sarái* or native hotel, small *bázár*, Government-aided school, dispensary; police force, 20 men. The events chronicled in the popular ballad of Lúrik, the deified cowherd, occurred for the most part in this neighbourhood. For an account of the legend, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xiv. pp. 87-89.

Madaksira.—Town in Bellary District, Madras. Lat. 13° 56′ 30″ N., long. 77° 18′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871), 5262; number of houses, 1197. Formerly the stronghold of a powerful *poligár* of Vijáyanagar; seized by Morári Ráo in 1741, and by Haidar Alí in 1769. The fort was built on a rock above the town, which was itself walled and protected by a ditch. Large *táluk* of the same name.

Madanapalli ('*Cupid's hamlet*'). — Town in Cuddapah District, Madras. Lat. 13° 33′ 37″ N., long. 78° 32′ 45″ E.; pleasantly situated on the Cuddapah upland, 2500 feet above sea level, and consisting of 3 hamlets (Madanapalligadda, Kotapalli, and Batalanuttigadda). Pop. (1871), 8164; number of houses, 1388. The headquarters of a *táluk* of the same name. Good dispensary, post office, and mission school. The town suffered severely in the famine of 1876-78.

Madanganj.—Town in Dacca District, Bengal; on the Lakhmia, opposite NARAINGANJ TOWN, of which it in reality forms a part, having been established by the merchants of that place, who were pressed for space in the town. Large and increasing trade in country produce. Pop. (1871), 3000; total pop. of Náráinganj, with Madanganj (1872), 10,911.

Madanpur.—Small chiefship in Biláspur District, Central Provinces. Area, 25 square miles; pop. (1872), 5717, residing in 44 villages, which are intermixed with the villages of Mungelí *parganá*. Chief crop, rice; but wheat, gram, etc. are also grown. The chief is a Ráj-Gond, and the grant dates from 1812.

Madapollam.—Decayed weaving and dyeing village, a suburb of Narsupur, Godávari District, Madras. Lat. 16° 26′ N., long. 81° 44′ 20″ E. Was an important manufacturing village and entrepôt for cotton goods during the commercial period of the East India Company, and gave its name to a class of goods still known in the market as Madapollams. It was attached to the Masulipatam Factory.

Mádárí.—Small river in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal, with the grain marts of Chaital and Bánsrá on its banks.

Madaría (or *Golá*).—Town in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 20′ 50″ N., long. 83° 23′ 40″ E.; pop. (1872),

5147. Stands on the river Kuánah, 26 miles south of Gorakhpur. Police station; primary civil court.

Mádáripur.—Subdivision, formerly of Bákarganj District, but most of it now transferred to Farídpur District, Bengal. Area of the old Subdivision, 1070 square miles; townships, 1334; houses, 81,144. Pop. (1872), 663,043—of whom 360,085, or 54·3 per cent., were Muhammadans; 299,540, or 45·2 per cent., Hindus; 3375, or 0·5 per cent., Christians; and 43 'others.' Proportion of males in total population, 49 per cent.; average density of population, 620 per square mile; average number of inhabitants per village, 497; houses per square mile, 76; inmates per house, 8·2. The old Subdivision comprised the 4 police circles (*thánás*) of Gaurnadi, Kotwálipára, Mádáripur, and Múlfatganj. The transfer took place since the Census of 1872; and the following figures apply to the new Subdivision, which corresponds with the old one, except that it does not include the police circle (*tháná*) of Gaurnadi. Area of the remaining 3 police circles, viz. Kotwálipára, Mádáripur, and Múlfatganj, 869 square miles; villages, 1025; houses, 61,779; pop. 503,232.

Madavarvilagam.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras. Lat. 9° 30′ N., long. 77° 38′ 20″ E.; pop. (1871), 9955; number of houses, 2267. It is a suburb of the headquarters town, and contains a fine pagoda and a tower dedicated to Sivá.

Maddikera.—Town in Karnúl (Kurnool) District, Madras. Lat. 15° 15′ N., long. 77° 28′ E.; pop. (1871), 8586; number of houses, 1556. Station on the north-west line of the Madras Railway at the source of the Hindri river.

Maddúr.—Municipal village in Mysore District, Mysore. Lat. 12° 35′ 30″ N., long. 77° 5′ 20″ E.; on the right bank of the Shimshá river, 36 miles by road north-east of Mysore; pop. (1871), 2288; municipal revenue (1874-75), £12; rate of taxation, 1d. per head. Old town, with many temples and tanks. The fort was dismantled by Lord Cornwallis in 1791; the place has never recovered from the ruin caused during the war with Tipú, and is now unhealthy. Until 1875 it was the headquarters of a *táluk* of the same name. A brick bridge of 7 arches was constructed across the Shimshá in 1850.

Madgiri.—*Táluk* in Túmkúr District, Mysore. Area, 437 square miles, of which 113 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 86,532 — namely, 84,376 Hindus, 1894 Muhammadans, 256 Jains, and 6 Christians; land revenue (1874-75), £13,329, or 3s. 9½d. per cultivated acre. A fertile tract, water being everywhere easily obtained beneath the surface by means of *talpargis* or spring heads. The rice, known as *chinnada saláki* or golden stick, is reckoned the best in Mysore, and the breed of cattle is also fine.

Madgiri ('*Honey Hill*').—Municipal town in Túmkúr District,

Mysore; 24 miles north of Túmkúr, at the north base of the MADGIRI-DRUG. Lat. 13° 39′ N., long. 77° 16′ E.; pop. (1871), 3959; municipal revenue (1874-75), £61; rate of taxation, 3½d. per head. Old town, which has grown up under the protection of the fortifications on the neighbouring hill. It prospered greatly under both Haidar Alí and his son Tipú, but was twice sacked by the Marhattás, in 1774 and 1791. There are now manufactures of iron, steel, cotton cloth, and blankets; and a brisk trade in brass, copper, and silver utensils. Rice is largely exported. Two large temples of Rámanaswámí and Malleswara are conspicuous objects; the latter is gracefully ornamented under the eaves with carved figures of pigeons life-size. Headquarters of a *táluk* of the same name.

Madgiri-drúg.—Hill in Túmkúr District, Mysore; 3935 feet above sea level, crowned with old fortifications commanding the town of MADGIRI. Lat. 13° 39′ 30″ N., long. 77° 14′ 40″ E. On the summit are many springs of water, with large granaries excavated in the rock. The present formidable works were erected by Haidar Alí, in substitution for the mud walls of a *poligár* or petty chieftain.

Mádgula (*Madgole*). — Town in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. 17° 55′ N., long. 82° 51′ 30″ E.; pop. (1871), 7428; number of houses, 2099. Situated about 3000 feet above sea level, on the road from Narsapatnam into the Jáipur (Jeypore) country. Mádgula is the chief town of an ancient hill *zamíndárí* or estate, paying a *peshkash* (tribute) of £3000 to Government. The estate contains 139 villages and 56,512 inhabitants; it is partly under the 'Agency Administration' of Jáipur (Jeypore).

Mádha.—Chief town of the Mádha Subdivision, Sholápur District, Bombay; situated in lat. 18° 4′ N., and long. 75° 35′ E., 8 miles south-east of the Bársi road station and 2 miles west of the Marheh station, on the south-east line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Mádha is a municipal town with a population (1872) of 5254 persons; municipal revenue, £150. Sub-judge's court and post office.

Madhan.—Petty State in the Punjab, subordinate to Keunthál. Area, 13 square miles; estimated population (1875), 1000; revenue, £160. The chief (Thákur) is a Rájput, his family having originally come from Biláspur.

Mádhepur.—Town in Darbhangah District, Bengal; situated in lat. 26° 10′ 20″ N., and long. 86° 25′ 1″ E., at the junction of the roads from Barhampur, Harsinhpur, Gopálpur *ghát*, and Darbhangah. Pop. (1872), 7301. Police station and good *bázár;* the Nawáda indigo factory is in the immediate neighbourhood. Mádhepur is admirably suited for trade with all parts of Tirhut and Purniah, and will probably soon become an important commercial town. Its name is said to mean 'Centre City,' from the idea that it was the centre of the ancient Mithilá.

Madheswaranmalai.—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 12° 2′ N., long. 77° 35′ E.; pop. (1871), 7522; number of houses, 1199.

Madhubaní.—Subdivision of Darbhangah District, Bengal, lying between 26° 1′ and 26° 39′ 30″ N. lat., and between 85° 52′ and 86° 46′ E. long. Area, 1282 square miles; villages, 860; houses, 115,233. Pop. (1872), 689,741—of whom 614,348, or 89·1 per cent., were Hindus; 75,068, or 10·9 per cent., Muhammadans; 51 Christians; and 274 'others.' Proportion of males in total population, 51·5 per cent.; average density of population per square mile, 538; villages per square mile, 0·67; persons per village, 802; houses per square mile, 90; persons per house, 6. This Subdivision comprises the 6 police circles (*thánás*) of Benipatí Khajaulí, Bhawárá, Khajaulí, Mádhepur, Harlákí, and Laukáha. In 1870, it contained 1 court, a force of 89 policemen and 1680 *chaukídárs* or village watchmen; cost of Subdivisional administration, £792, 16s.

Madhubaní.—Headquarters town of the Subdivision of the same name in Darbhangah District, Bengal; situated in lat. 26° 21′ 20″ N., and long. 86° 7′ E., about 16 miles north-east of Darbhangah town. Good *bázár*, with daily markets for grain, vegetables, and cloth. Situated on one of the main roads from the south of the District to Nepál. Communications excellent; dispensary and hospital. Municipal revenue (1870), £380, 16s.

Madhugarh. — North-western *tahsíl* of Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces, lying in the angle between the Pahúj and the Jumna (Jamuná); much intersected by ravines, but producing excellent crops of sugar-cane. Area, 282 square miles, of which 203 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 89,165; land revenue, £13,282; total Government revenue, £14,680; rental paid by cultivators, £25,858; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 5⅝d.

Madhumatí.—River of Bengal.—*See* BALESWAR.

Madhupur.—Village in Gurdáspur District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 22′ N., long. 75° 39′ E.; pop. (1868), 2675. The head-works of the BARI DOAB CANAL are situated opposite this village.

Madhupur.—Extensive jungle, known also as the 'Gar Guzálí,' stretching northwards from the northern part of Dacca into the heart of Maimansinh District, Bengal, almost as far as the Brahmaputra. A slightly elevated tract, averaging about 40 feet above the plain, with small hills nowhere exceeding 100 feet in height. Covered with dense jungle and grasses; very unhealthy, and abounding in wild beasts, but penetrated by the high road to Maimansinh. The *sál* (Shorea robusta) grows throughout the tract, and supplies timber and charcoal. The open parts make good pasture grounds during the cold weather; and a considerable trade is carried on in bees-wax and honey. Small

patches have been planted or brought under cultivation by two public-spirited *zamíndárs* of Dacca. The soil, a red ferruginous clay, was formerly smelted for iron; but this industry ceased to yield a livelihood on the introduction of the English metal, and has now been abandoned.

Madhwápur.—Village in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; situated on the Nepál frontier, on the river Dháús. A busy trade is carried on with Nepál. Pop. (1872), 1534, of whom 1368 were Hindus and 166 Muhammadans.

Madhyárjunam.—Town in Tanjore District, Madras. Lat. 10° 57′ N., long. 79° 30′ E. Containing, with its suburbs, 1111 houses, and a population (1871) of 4832. Notable for its temple, and as the residence of some of the Tanjore royal family.

Madnágarh. — Fine reservoir in Chánda District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 35′ N., and long. 79° 32′ E., 11 miles east-north-east of Chimur, under the western slopes of the Perzágarh range. Supplied by a hill stream, diverted into it by a long embankment, at the end of which are the remains of a fort. The village is deserted; but the neighbouring population cultivate the lands.

Madras Presidency.—Madras, officially entitled the Presidency of Fort Saint George, occupies with its dependencies the entire south of the Peninsula of India. Its extreme length from north-east to south-west is about 950 miles; its extreme breadth about 450 miles. The Parliamentary Abstract for 1879 gives the area of the British Districts at 138,856 square miles, with a population (1871) of 31,672,613 persons. The five Native States in political dependence on Madras—Travancore, Cochin, Puducottah, Banganapalli, and Sandhúr—have an additional area of 9818 square miles and 3,289,392 inhabitants; total area, 148,674 square miles; total population, 34,962,005. The seat of Government is at the Presidency town, MADRAS CITY.

Boundaries.—On every side but the north, the Madras Presidency is washed by the open sea. Along the east, or rather from south-west to north-east, extends the continuous coast-line of the Bay of Bengal, stretching for nearly 1200 miles, from Cape Comorin to the Chilká Lake; the western coast is formed by the shore of the Indian Ocean, for about 540 miles. Off the south-east lies the British Colony of Ceylon, separated by a shallow strait, across which runs the string of rocks and sandbanks known as 'Adam's Bridge.' The irregular northern boundary of Madras has been formed by accidents of history. On the extreme north-east is the Bengal Province of Orissa; next come the wild highlands of the Central Provinces; then, for a long stretch, the Dominions of the Nizám of Haidarábád, separated by the Kistna river and its tributary the Tungabhadra; lastly, on the north-west by west, the Districts of Dhárwár and North Kanara in the Bombay Presidency.

The State of MYSORE, which occupies a large portion of the centre of the area thus defined, may be regarded, for geographical purposes, as a part of Madras. The LACCADIVE ISLANDS form, for administrative purposes, a part of Madras Presidency, being attached to the Districts of Malabar and South Kanara.

General Aspect.—Viewed on the map, Madras presents a very broken aspect. Its eastern shore extends up the peninsula more than twice as far as its western; while its heart seems to be eaten out by the intruding State of Mysore. From a physical point of view, it may be roughly divided into three portions—(1) the long and broad eastern coast; (2) the shorter and narrower western coast; and (3) the high tableland in the interior. These divisions are determined by the two great mountain ranges of the EASTERN and WESTERN GHATS, which give the key to the configuration of all Southern India. The Eastern Gháts, which lie entirely within this Presidency, form a continuation of the confused hill system of Chutiá Nágpur. They run in a south-westerly direction almost through the entire length of Madras, until they lose themselves in the NILGIRIS, and there join with the Western range. Their average height is only 1500 feet, and for the most part they leave a broad expanse of low land between their base and the sea. Their line is pierced by three great rivers, the Godávari, Kistna (Krishna), and Káveri (Cauvery), as well as by minor streams; so that they do not perform the part of a watershed. The Western Gháts, on the other hand, which stretch southwards continuously along the shore of the Indian Ocean from the north of Bombay, satisfy all the characteristics of a mountain range. Rising steeply at a distance of 30 to 50 miles in the Madras Districts from the coast, they catch almost the whole rainfall of the monsoon, and in the south not a single stream breaks through their barrier. Some of their peaks attain an elevation of more than 5000 feet. Between these two bordering ranges lies the central tableland, with an elevation of from 1000 to 3000 feet, which includes the whole of Mysore, and extends over about half a dozen Districts of Madras. Each of these three divisions has natural features of its own. The eastern coast possesses the deltas of the three great rivers, where artificial irrigation has combined with natural fertility to reward the toil of the husbandman. On the west coast, the rainfall never fails; but cultivation is hemmed in within narrow limits by the mountains and the sea. In the central plateau, the country is generally bare, the rainfall light, and the means of irrigation difficult. But it contains many tracts of fertile soil, and the cultivator does his best to store in tanks the local showers which the monsoons bring to him from either coast.

Rivers, Mountains, and Lakes.—The three principal rivers of Madras are the GODAVARI, KISTNA or KRISHNA, and KAVERI (Cauvery), each with a large tributary system of its own. All of these rivers have the

same uniform features. They rise in the Western Gháts, and run right across the peninsula in a south-easterly direction into the Bay of Bengal. They drain rather than water the upper country through which they flow, and are comparatively valueless either for navigation or irrigation. But, like other rivers which fall into the Bay of Bengal, all of them spread over alluvial deltas before they reach the sea, and there become capable of being restrained and utilized by the agricultural engineer. Other rivers on the east coast, of similar character but smaller dimensions, are the NORTH and SOUTH PENNAR or PINAKINI, the PALAR, the VAIGA, the VELLAR, and the TAMBARAVARI. The two main hill systems of the Presidency have been already described in the Eastern and Western Gháts. The NILGIRIS, which join these two ranges, culminate in DODABETTA (8640 feet), the loftiest peak in Southern India. There are, besides, many outlying spurs and tangled masses of hills, of which the SHEVAROYS in Salem, the ANAMALAIS in Coimbatore, and the PALNI (Pulney) HILLS in Madura are the most important. South of the Palghát gap—where, so to say, the backbone of India is cut down to within 1000 feet of the sea level, by a break 25 miles wide —the Western Gháts resume their course at full level right down to Cape Comorin, and immediately widen out into the highland tract that lies between Madura on the one side, and Malabar, Cochin, and Travancore on the other; known as the Anamalais in the Coimbatore District, and as the Palnis in Madura. This hill tract, higher than the Nílgiris in parts, and much more extensive, narrows abreast of the Kumbum valley (Madura), and behind Tinnevelli becomes only a mountain range between the two coasts, with a restricted area. This highland tract is very extensive, and is likely to open a field for European enterprise as the Nílgiri tract becomes fully occupied. The principal lake in the Presidency is that of PULICAT, on the east coast, which is 33 miles in length from north to south, and forms an important backwater for inland communication between Madras city and the northern Districts. This lake is supposed to have been caused by the sea breaking in through the low sandy beach. On the western coast, the perpetual antagonism between the mountain torrents and the ocean has produced a remarkable series of backwaters or lagoons, fringing the entire seaboard of Kanara, Malabar, and Travancore. The largest is the Backwater of Cochin, which extends from north to south for a distance of 120 miles. These backwaters are also used for inland navigation. With the exception of a break, caused by a projecting spur of the Gháts, which is now in course of being cut through and tunnelled, continuous water communication is thus provided between Cochin and the capital of Travancore, and thence prolonged southwards almost to Cape Comorin by an artificial canal.

Minerals, etc.—The greater part of the Madras Presidency is covered

with soils originally formed by the disintegration of rocks of the metamorphic and igneous systems. Of the former system, gneiss, mica, syenite, and quartz are the most widely prevalent; while the high mountain ranges are usually of granitic formation, with a good deal of felspar. A wide belt of green-sand stretches across the country in a north-east direction from Trichinopoli. The common red soil shows by its colour a large admixture of the peroxide of iron. Pure alluvium is found in the deltas of the eastern rivers, and in tracts of the celebrated 'black cotton-soil' scattered over the Presidency, which in places occupy the beds of pre-historic lakes. The mineral wealth of Madras is as yet undeveloped. Iron of excellent quality has been smelted by native smiths from time immemorial in many places. In Salem District are some remarkable deposits of magnetic iron, from 50 to 100 feet in thickness, extending continuously for miles. A Company was formed in 1825 to work the beds at Palampatti, and operations were afterwards extended to Porto Novo, near Cuddalore, and to Beypur (Bepur) on the Malabar coast; but all these enterprises ended in failure. Carboniferous sandstone extends across the Godávari as far south as Ellore. The strata were mapped by the Geological Survey in 1871; the coal was tested by borings near Damagudem, and found to be of inferior quality. Attention has recently been drawn to the promise of gold-mining in the Wainád (WYNAAD) and Kolár. Gold has long been washed in the hill streams in small quantities; but it is hoped that operations for quartz-crushing on a large scale might prove remunerative. Most of the quartz reefs are auriferous, particularly in Nambalikod and Munád. Laboratory experiments on the southern ends of six reefs have shown an average of 7 dwts. of gold to the ton of quartz, rising in one case to 11 dwts. The best samples show a fineness of 20 carats, but this standard is exceeded in the alluvial gold from the low country. Speculation has already taken up this enterprise, and Australian experts give reason to anticipate a fair profit. The Government has resolved to alienate no waste land without reserving the mining rights. Exploration is proving that gold-mining is many centuries old in Wainád. Alluvial washing was, until within the last twenty-five years, a source of a small State revenue (*motarfa*). About 1830, the Government itself embarked in this industry, but abandoned it as unremunerative after a few years. Gold may, indeed, be washed from the sands of many of the rivers descending from the Western Gháts in Malabar. The larger portion of the auriferous reefs in South Wainád are supposed to be on private land, the property of the great landowners or *jenmis* of Malabar. Among other minerals may be mentioned manganese in the Nílgiris and Bellary; copper-ore in many parts of the Eastern Gháts; antimony and silver in Madura; corundum in the valley of the Káveri (Cauvery). Garnets are abundant in the sandstone of the

Northern Circars, and diamonds of moderate value are still found in the same region.

Forests.—The south-western coast is rich in forest vegetation, but much of the valuable timber grows beyond the limits of the Presidency —in Bombay, Mysore, Coorg, and Travancore. The first essay at forest conservancy in the Madras Presidency was the introduction of a State royalty over teak and other valuable timber in Malabar and Kanara in 1807. The measure soon assumed the character of a Government monopoly of timber throughout the coast Districts, and led to abuses and discontent on the part of the proprietors and inhabitants. It was accordingly abolished by Sir Thomas Monro in 1822.

The existing Forest Department for Madras Presidency was first organized in 1856, and was placed on a new footing in 1875; but the resources of the country have not yet been fully ascertained. It is estimated that forests cover a total area in the mountains of the Madras Presidency of more than 5000 square miles. Over the whole of this area rules of conservation are in force. For supplying fuel to the railways, a total area of about 132,000 acres, of which one-half lies in South Arcot, has been placed under stricter rules. Up to 1875-76, the total sum of £16,000 had been spent upon these 'fuel reserves,' and the estimated receipts in that year were £1300. In the remaining forests, after supplying local wants, timber is either sold direct by the department, or licences are granted to wood-cutters. In 1876-77, the revenue from timber sold was £19,000, while £21,000 was realized from licences. In that year, the total receipts of the Department amounted to £41,531, against an expenditure of £41,397. The more valuable timber-trees comprise teak, ebony, blackwood, rosewood, sandal-wood, and red sanders-wood. There are altogether 81 Government plantations, covering an area of 15,000 acres, on which, up to 1876-77, a total sum of £51,000 had been expended; the receipts in that year were £2680. The trees thus artificially reared are teak, red sanders-wood, Casuarina and Eucalyptus. The finest teak plantation is near Beypur in Malabar, called after its founder, Mr. Conolly. It has been formed gradually since 1844, and now covers about 4000 acres. At Mudumalli there are plantations of both teak and sandal-wood; and the Eucalyptus or Australian gum-tree now grows on the Nílgiris in magnificent clumps. In 1875-76, the total value of timber and wood exported from Madras was £104,511.

Fauna.—The wild animals of Madras are for the most part common to the rest of India. Those deserving mention are the elephant, bison, stag, and ibex of the Western Gháts and the Nílgiris. Bison are also found in the hill tracts of the Northern Circars. In the State of Travancore, the black variety of leopard is not uncommon. In 1876, 981 persons (probably below the actual number) were returned as killed

by wild beasts and snakes; of whom tigers killed 83, leopards 33, and snakes as many as 819. In that year, 10,322 cattle were reported to have been killed, the deaths being caused in almost equal proportions by tigers, leopards, and wolves. A total sum of £2984 was paid by Government in rewards for the destruction of wild beasts, including 236 tigers, 1021 leopards, 133 bears, 39 wolves, and 164 hyænas. The elephant is now protected by law from indiscriminate destruction.

The agricultural live stock consists of horned cattle and sheep, horses being almost unrepresented. The cattle are small in stature, the average live weight not being much above 350 lbs. In Nellore, and along the Mysore frontier, a superior breed is carefully kept up by the wealthier farmers. The cattle fairs in these Districts are frequented by buyers from considerable distances; and prizes are sometimes offered by official personages. The best buffaloes are imported from the Bombay District of Dhárwár. The sheep are lightly built animals with long legs, and yield on an average about 25 lbs. of mutton. The annual clip of wool, which is always largely mixed with hair, is usually not more than 1 lb. per head. Experiments in breeding sheep have been made at the Saidapet farm, with fair success. In 1875-76, the total number of cattle in the Presidency was returned at 8,270,000 head, and of sheep at 6,745,000. In the same year, the export of hides and skins was valued at £1,081,585, and of horns at £22,591. Wool is not exported at all, the supply being locally consumed in the manufacture of *kamblis* or coarse blankets.

The History of the Madras Presidency forms an integral part of the history of India, and occupies many hundred pages of Mill and Wilson, Elphinstone, Grant Duff, and other standard works. The researches of Orme, the special historian of the Presidency, form a noble series of folio manuscript volumes in the India Office. The great missionary scholar of the Dravidian tongue, Bishop Caldwell, and the eminent Sanskrit scholar of Southern India, Dr. Burnell of the Civil Service, have opened up a far-stretching background of research. It would be unsuitable, in a work like the present, to attempt more than a bare summary.

The history of Southern India is the history of the Dravidian races, which have not yet found a chronicler. Of their ethnical affinities and of their advent into the country we know little. Their early conversion to Hinduism is perhaps recorded in the great epic of the *Rámáyana*, which represents the monkey tribes as assisting the god to destroy the demon king of Ceylon. Subsequently, the wave of Buddhism passed over the land; and in historical times, Muhammadan and Marhattá invaders have founded short-lived dynasties. But through all changes of religion and government, the obstinate persistence of the

two languages of Tamil and Telugu proves how deeply the Dravidian stock is rooted in the soil. Though continuous records are wanting, many interesting facts indicate the large part played by the South in the early history of India. The Malabar coast, with its wealth of spices and timber, was the cradle of commerce. The 'peacocks' of king Solomon have a Tamil name in the original Hebrew; and the word by which rice is known in all European languages has also a Tamil derivation. Syrian Christians and Muhammadans from Arabia have been settled on the western coast of Madras from the earliest times, and their proselytes form a large section of the population of Malabar and Travancore; a colony of Jews, too, have resided in Cochin for many centuries; and the first Portuguese adventurers there found their richest cargoes. At a later date, historical interest shifted to the opposite shore of the Karnatic, where the issue was fought and decided of English supremacy in the East. Here the ambitious schemes of Dupleix for territorial aggrandisement were shattered by the heaven-born genius of Clive, who first proved the superiority of British valour, and the loyalty of the native Sepoy. Here also were witnessed the successful strategy of Coote, the indomitable spirit of Haidar, the ferocity of Tipú, and the beginnings of Wellington's career of victory. With the opening of the present century, Madras has ceased to furnish material for the military historian.

Until the paramount power of England established universal peace, the whole of Southern India had never acknowledged a single ruler. The difficult nature of the hill passes and the warlike character of the highland tribes forbade the growth of great empires, such as succeeded one another on the plains of Hindustán. So far as we can raise the veil of primitive history, we find the land partitioned out among numerous minor dynasties, who rose and fell with bewildering rapidity. The Tamil country in the extreme south, to which the name of DRAVIDA is alone strictly applicable, is traditionally divided between the three kingdoms of PANDYA, CHOLA, and CHERA. The west coast supplied the nucleus of a monarchy which afterwards extended over the highlands of Mysore, and took its name from the KARNATIC. On the north-east, the kings of KALINGA at one time ruled over the entire line of seaboard from the Krishna to the Ganges. Hindu legend has preserved marvellous stories of these early dynasties, but our only authentic evidence consists in their inscriptions on stone and brass, and their noble architecture. The Muhammadan invader first established himself in the south in the beginning of the 14th century. Alá-ud-dín, the second monarch of the Khiljí dynasty at Delhi, and his general Málik Káfar, conquered the Deccan, and overthrew the kingdoms of Karnataka and Telingána, which were then the most powerful in Southern India.

But after the withdrawal of the Musalmán armies, the native monarchy of Vijáyanagar arose out of the ruins, with its capital on the Tungabhadra. This dynasty gradually extended its dominions from sea to sea, and reached a pitch of prosperity such as had been before unknown. At last, in 1565, after a glorious history of two centuries, Vijáyanagar was overwhelmed by a combination of the four Muhammadan principalities of the Deccan. Mughal and Marhattá armies followed in quick succession; and it seemed as if all national life had been crushed out of the Dravidian races. The Emperor Aurangzeb nominally extended his sovereignty as far as Cape Comorin; but in reality the south of India had again fallen under a number of rulers, who owned no regular allegiance. The Nizám of the Deccan, himself an independent sovereign, represented the distant court of Delhi. The most powerful of his feudatories was the Nawáb of the Karnatic, with his capital at Arcot. In the plain of Tanjore, a descendant of the line of Sivají ruled in ignoble ease, cut off from the rest of the Marhattá confederacy. On the central tableland, a Hindu chieftain was gradually establishing his authority over his neighbours, and founding the State of Mysore, destined soon to pass to a Muhammadan usurper. Such was the state of affairs amid which the prophetic mind of Dupleix first formed the dream of European supremacy.

Vasco da Gama, the pioneer of maritime adventure, cast anchor off Calicut on 20th May 1498. For a century the Portuguese retained in their control the commerce of India, especially along the western coast. The Dutch began to establish themselves on the ruins of the Portuguese at the beginning of the 17th century, and were quickly followed by the English, who opened places of business at Calicut and Cranganore as early as 1616. Telicherri, a branch factory from Surat, in 1683, became the principal British emporium on the western coast of Madras, and was permanently obtained by a cession of territory in 1708. The Portuguese eventually retired to Goa, and the Dutch to the Spice Islands. The first English settlement on the eastern coast was founded in 1620 at Masulipatam, even then celebrated for its fabrics. To the south, a factory, the nucleus of the present city of Madras, was erected in 1639, permission having been first obtained from the Hindu Rájá of Chandragiri. The site of Pondicherri was purchased by the French in 1672. For many years the English and French traders lived peacefully side by side, rivals only in commerce, and with no ambition for territorial aggrandisement. The war of the Austrian Succession in Europe lit the first flame of hostility on the Coromandel coast. In 1746, the weak garrison of Madras was forced to surrender to Labourdonnais; and Fort St. David remained the only British possession in Southern India. By the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, Madras was restored

to us; but henceforth the national antipathies were destined to run their course. An excuse was found in the disputed successions which always fill a large place in oriental politics. English influence was generally able to secure the favour of the rulers of the Karnatic and Tanjore, while the French succeeded in placing their own nominee on the throne at Haidarábád. At last, after many vicissitudes and countless intrigues, the great Frenchman, Dupleix, rose to be the temporary arbiter of the fate of Southern India. His strength lay in his profound insight into the native temperament, and the semi-oriental magnificence of his ambition. But when his ascendancy was at its height, it was suddenly overthrown by the straightforward valour of the yet greater Englishman, Clive, whose defence of Arcot in 1751 forms the turning-point in Indian history. Dupleix was shortly afterwards recalled, to be succeeded by Bussy and Lally, who possessed higher military skill, but less political genius, than their predecessor. In 1760, the crowning victory of Wandewash, won by Colonel (afterwards Sir Eyre) Coote, over Lally, established for ever the doctrine that one European nation, and that the English, must be supreme in India. In the following year, despite help from Mysore, Pondicherri was captured; and the name of France ceased to awaken disturbing associations in the minds of the natives.

But though the English had no longer any European rival, they had yet to deal with Muhammadan fanaticism and the warlike population of the highlands of Mysore. The dynasty, founded by Haidar Alí and terminating in his son Tipú Sultán, proved itself in four several wars the most formidable antagonist which the English had ever encountered. The Madras Government, then at a low ebb of efficiency, was incapable of offering a worthy opposition. On more than one occasion the horsemen of Mysore swept unmolested through the lowlands of the Karnatic, plundering up to the very gates of the English forts. The first war was ended in 1769 by a peace dictated by Haidar Alí beneath the walls of Madras. In the course of the second war, a British force under Colonel Baillie was cut to pieces by Haidar near Conjevaram; and Tipú fairly drove the English out of Malabar, taking several garrisons prisoner. But the disaster near Conjevaram was avenged in the following year by Sir Eyre Coote, who had been despatched by Warren Hastings from Bengal to take up the command. The victory of Porto Novo, won after a severe struggle, proved that the English were still masters in the open field, though Haidar's superiority in marching power enabled him to escape the worst consequences of defeat. Haidar died in 1782. Two years later, Tipú consented to sign a treaty which stipulated for the restoration of conquests on either side. This patched-up peace, which left Tipú in possession of all the means of offence

that he had inherited from his father, continued till 1790. The ostensible reason for a renewal of hostilities was Tipú's cruel devastation of Travancore, but the real cause is to be sought in his inveterate hatred of the English name. Lord Cornwallis, the Governor-General, took the field in person. In 1791, the fort of Bangalore was captured by assault; and in the following year, Tipú only saved his capital by consenting to a treaty which deprived him of half his dominions, and exacted an indemnity of more than three millions sterling. The intrigues of Tipú with the French republicans led to the fourth and last Mysore war of 1799, which was ended in a few months by the storming of Seringapatam, and the death of the Sultán in the breach.

Since the beginning of the present century, Madras has known no regular war. But over such a wide area of territory occasional disturbances have called for measures of military repression. The *paligars* or local chieftains in the south long clung to their independence after their country was ceded to the British. On the west coast, the feudal aristocracy of the Nairs and the religious fanaticism of the Moplás have more than once led to rebellion and bloodshed. In the extreme north, the wild tribes occupying the hills of Ganjám and Vizagapatam have only lately learned the habit of subordination. In 1836, the *zamíndárí* of Gúmsur in this remote tract was attached by Government for the rebellious conduct of its chief. An inquiry then instituted revealed the wide prevalence among the tribe of Kandhs of human sacrifice, under the name of *meriah.* The detestable practice has since been suppressed by a special agency. Even in the present year (1879), the country round Rampa on the northern frontier has been the scene of riots sufficiently serious to lead to the military authorities being called upon to act.

The territories, as distinguished by sites, within the Madras Presidency, have been acquired at various dates. In 1763, the tract encircling Madras city, long known as the Jaghire (*jágír*) of the East India Company, and now called Chengalpat District, was ceded by the Nawáb of Arcot. In 1765, the NORTHERN CIRCARS, out of which the French had recently been driven, were granted to the Company by the Mughal Emperor; but it was thought desirable to obtain the further sanction of the Nizám, at the price of an annual tribute of £90,000. Full rights of dominion were not acquired till 1823, when the tribute was commuted for a lump payment. In 1792, Tipú Sultán was compelled to cede the Baramahál (now forming part of Salem District), Malabar, and the Dindigal Subdivision of Madura. In 1799, on the reconstruction of the State of Mysore after Tipú's death, Coimbatore and Kanara were appropriated as the British share; and in the same year, the Marhattá Rájá of Tanjore resigned the administration of

his territory, though his descendant retained titular rank until 1855. In 1800, Bellary and Cuddapah, known to this day as the Ceded Districts, were made over by the Nizám of Haidarábád, to defray the expenses of an increased Subsidiary Force. In the following year, the extensive dominions of the Nawáb of the Karnatic, extending along the east coast almost continuously from Nellore to Tinnevelli, were resigned into the hands of the British by a puppet who had been put upon the throne for that purpose. The last titular Nawáb of the Karnatic died in 1855; but his representative still bears the title of Prince of Arcot, and is recognised as the first native nobleman in Madras. In 1838, the Nawáb of Karnúl (Kurnool) was deposed for misgovernment and the suspicion of treason, and his territory annexed.

With regard to native States, the largest, MYSORE, has always been in direct relation with the Government of India. Of those subordinate to Madras, TRAVANCORE and COCHIN represent ancient Hindu dynasties, preserved by British aid from falling under the Muhammadan yoke of Mysore. A joint rebellion was suppressed in 1808; and the history of both has since been a continuous record of peace and commercial prosperity. PUDUKOTTA is the inheritance of a chieftain called Tondiman, who rendered valuable service to the British during all their wars in the south. BANGANAPALLI and SANDHUR, two petty estates, lie in the centre of British Districts. The Madras *zamíndárís* of Jáipur (Jeypore) and Vizagapatam are not native States with independent jurisdiction, but large landed properties under the British administration.

People.—From early times the population of the Madras Presidency, or at least of that portion residing in *rayatwárí* villages, has been enumerated with more or less pretension to accuracy. The first Census, taken in 1822, returned a total of 13,476,923 inhabitants. Between 1851-52 and 1866-67, enumerations were made by the village establishments at intervals of five years. The last of these quinquennial attempts gave a population of 26,539,052.

The Census of 1871, corresponding to that of 1872 in the greater part of the rest of India, is the only enumeration conducted with sufficient care to yield results available for statistical use. The enumerators were in general the village officials, who received no extra remuneration. The final counting was effected on the 15th November 1871, except in a few special tracts; but the staff had been trained in their work for many months previously. The total number of enumerators employed was 71,641. The following table shows in detail the area and the number of houses, villages, and inhabitants in each District of the Presidency, with the density of population per square mile. But the returns have been in some Districts affected by the famine of 1876-78.

AREA, POPULATION, ETC. OF MADRAS PRESIDENCY IN 1871.
Taken from the Census Returns.

Name of District.	Area in Square Miles.	Number of Villages.	Number of Houses.	Population.	Number of Inhabitants per Square Mile.
Ganjám, . .	8,313	4,562	341,404	1,520,088	182·9
Vizagapatam, .	18,344	8,581	489,419	2,159,199	117·7
Godávari, . .	6,224	2,202	389,712	1,592,939	253·9
Kistna, . .	8,036	2,140	282,358	1,452,374	180·7
Nellore, . .	8,462	2,174	263,820	1,376,811	162·7
Cuddapah, .	8,367	1,337	339,063	1,351,194	161·5
Bellary, . .	11,007	2,568	351,943	1,668,006	151·5
Karnúl, . .	7,358	787	205,884	959,640	130·4
Chengalpat, .	2,753	2,362	141,434	938,184	340·7
North Arcot, .	7,139	5,292	329,844	2,015,278	282·3
South Arcot, .	4,873	3,198	228,761	1,755,817	360·3
Tanjore, . .	3,654	3,935	369,984	1,973,731	540·1
Trichinopoli, .	3,515	1,644	210,690	1,200,408	341·5
Madura, . .	9,502	5,459	443,513	2,266,615	238·5
Tinnevelli, .	5,176	1,824	403,803	1,693,959	327·3
Coimbatore, .	7,432	1,575	361,109	1,763,274	237·3
Nílgiris, . .	749	17	13,922	49,501	66·0
Salem, . .	7,483	4,021	391,519	1,966,995	262·9
South Kanara, .	3,902	1,288	184,569	918,362	235·4
Malabar, . .	6,002	432	435,462	2,261,250	376·7
Madras City, .	27	23	51,741	397,552	14,724·1
Total, .	138,318	55,421	6,229,954	31,281,177	226·2

The following table gives the corresponding statistics available for the 5 native States in political subordination to the Madras Presidency:—

AREA AND POPULATION OF THE MADRAS NATIVE STATES.

	Area in Square Miles.	Population.
Travancore (1875), ...	6,730	2,311,379
Cochin ,, ...	1,361	601,114
Pudukotta (1871), ...	1,380	316,695
Banganapalli ,, ...	207	45,208
Sandhúr ,, ...	140	14,996
Total, . . .	9,818	3,289,392

The addition of the two preceding tables yields a grand total area of 148,136 square miles, and a grand total population of 34,570,569 persons. These tables, which have been compiled from the Indian Census of 1871, are not absolutely consistent with the figures contained in the Parliamentary Blue-Book for 1879. The total area of the British Districts is there given at 138,856 square miles, inclusive of two *táluks* recently transferred from the Central Provinces; with a total popula-

tion of 31,672,613. The Indian returns, however, supply the only means for an examination of the population in detail. In the following abstract, the figures and percentages of the authoritative official report are reproduced without further verification. In some instances they are calculated only on the native population.

Taking the area at 138,318 square miles, and the number of inhabitants at 31,281,177, the following averages may be deduced for British territory. Density of population per square mile, 226·2, ranging from 66 in the hill District of the Nílgiris to 540·1 in the fertile delta of Tanjore, and 14,724·1 in Madras city; villages per square mile, 0·40, similarly ranging from 0·02 in the Nílgiris to 1·08 in Tanjore; houses per square mile, 45; persons per village, 562·2; persons per house, 5·02. Classified according to sex, there were 15,722,306 males and 15,558,871 females; proportion of males, 50·25 per cent. Classified according to age, there were 5,113,672 boys and 5,036,151 girls under 10 years of age; total children, 10,149,823, or 32·45 per cent. of the population. The religious classification of the people shows the following results:—Hindus, as loosely grouped together for religious purposes, 28,863,978, or 92·27 per cent., varying from 99 per cent. in Ganjám to 72 per cent. in Malabar; Muhammadans, 1,857,857, or 5·94 per cent., being most numerous on the Malabar coast, in Madras city, and the Ceded Provinces; Christians, 533,760, or 1·71 per cent.; Jains, 21,254; and 'others,' 4328. Of the total male population, 9,930,012 persons, or 63 per cent., were returned as following some occupation, thus classified: — Agriculture, 5,215,847; labourers, 2,080,885; handicrafts, 1,161,330; domestic service, 522,031; commerce, 505,492; Government employ and professions, 289,676. The number of persons able to read and write was returned at 1,530,150, or 5 per cent. of the total. The number afflicted with certain specified infirmities was as follows:—Insane, 7535; idiots, 6482; deaf or dumb, 40,969; blind, 60,853; lepers, 13,847; total, 129,686, or 0·415 per cent. of the population.

Ethnical Classification.—Broadly speaking, the entire population of Madras may be described as belonging to some one of the five races of the great Dravidian stock dominant throughout Southern India. At an early period, before the dawn of history, these races appear to have accepted some form or other of the Bráhmanical or Buddhist faiths. Many storms of conquest have since swept over the land, and a few colonies of Mughal and Marhattá origin are to be found here and there. But the indelible evidence of language proves that the ethnical character of the population has remained stable under all these influences; and that the Madras Hindu, Muhammadan, Jain, and Christian are of the same stock. Of the five Dravidian dialects, it is estimated that Telugu is spoken by about 11,610,000 persons, inhabiting the tract stretching

southwards as far as Nellore and inland to Karnúl; Tamil, by about 14,715,000 persons, occupying the remainder of the eastern coast from Madras city to Cape Comorin; Kanarese, by 1,699,000 persons, in the Central Districts surrounding Mysore and in South Kanara; Malayálam, by 2,324,000 persons, chiefly in Malabar District (besides the population of the Native States of Travancore and Cochin); and Tulu by 29,000 persons, in a limited portion of South Kanara. For the rest, Uriya is the native tongue in the extreme north of Ganjám, bordering on Orissa; and various sub-dialects of Dravidian origin are used by the hill tribes of the Eastern Gháts, of whom the Kandhs may be taken as the type.

Castes.—According to the classification of the Census Report, the Bráhmans number 1,094,455 persons, or 3·7 per cent. of the total Hindu population. They follow various pursuits, and are distributed with extreme irregularity, being proportionately most numerous in Kanara, Ganjám, and Tanjore. Many of them are said to be recent immigrants, who came south in the train of the Marhattá armies. They are locally divided into the two great Divisions of Pancha Dravida (which includes the Marhattás) and Pancha Gauda. In Malabar is found a peculiar class called Namburi Bráhmans, whom local tradition asserts to be descended from a race of fishermen. The Kshattriyas, or warrior caste of the primitive Hindu system, number only 190,415, the principal subdivisions being the Bondiliars and the Bhat Rájás. The trading castes number 714,712, or 2·4 per cent., returned under the heads of Chettis, Beri Chettis, and Komatis. Except in the District of Kanara, they still retain in their hands the greater part of the trade of the country. The agricultural castes number in all 7,826,127, or 26·6 per cent. The highest class among them, named Velama in the Telugu country, Vellala in the Tamil Districts, Bant and Nadavar in Kanara, and Nair in Malabar, belong to the well-to-do ranks of the community. They do not usually cultivate with their own hands, and many of them formerly held their lands on a military tenure. The pastoral castes, called Idaiyar in Tamil and Golla in Telugu, number 1,730,681, or 5·9 per cent., most numerous in the inland Districts of Bellary and Karnúl (Kurnool). A large proportion of them have abandoned their hereditary occupation. The artisan castes, called Kámálar in Tamil and Kamsála in Telugu, number 785,085, or 2·7 per cent., of whom nearly one-half are employed on metals. They have succeeded generally in maintaining a higher position in the social scale than is awarded to them in Northern India. The weavers number 1,071,781, or 3·7 per cent. They were once a much more important section of the community, but they have been unable to stand the competition of piece-goods from Manchester. The labouring castes number altogether 3,944,463, or 12·6 per cent., of whom very few are found in the Telugu country. In the south, the

Vannias or Naiks supply the bulk of agricultural labour. The Maravars and the Kallans, whose acknowledged head is the Rájá of Pudukotta, bear a bad reputation for thieving and general lawlessness. The Upparavas are chiefly engaged in the manufacture of salt and saltpetre, the Wadavars in tank-digging and road-making. The fishing and hunting castes, called Sembadavan in Tamil and Besta in Telugu, number 971,837, or 3·3 per cent. Many of them have now betaken themselves to agriculture. The palm cultivators and makers of toddy are very numerous in those Districts where the date, palmyra, and cocoa-nut flourish; but they are likewise largely engaged in general agriculture and farm labour, and in the production of coarse sugar (jaggery); their total reaches 1,664,862, or 5·7 per cent. They are clearly of aboriginal descent, and are, as a rule, demon-worshippers. The outcastes proper, whose Tamil name of Pariah has been adopted into European languages, are called Mala in Telugu, Holia in Kanarese, Poliyar in Malayálam, and Dheda in Marathi. They number in all 4,761,503, or 16·2 per cent., being thus four times as numerous as the Bráhmans. In the country round Madras, they amount to about one-quarter of the total population. Up to the close of the last century, they lived in a state of slavery to the superior castes; and they are still compelled by custom to live in separate hovels outside the boundary of the village, and to perform all menial services. They are described as a laborious, frugal, pleasure-loving people, omnivorous in diet, and capable of performing much hard work. Despite their absolute exclusion from the Hindu social system, the Pariahs returned themselves under more than 200 subdivisions in the Census Report. The unclassified Hindus of the Census, numbering 2,666,890, or 9·1 per cent., consist of aboriginal hill races and wandering tribes. They are found chiefly in the northern hill Districts and on the Nílgiris, in which last District they form more than half the total population. Numerically, the most important tribes are the Kandhs and Sauras, two cognate races of Dravidian origin who inhabit the mountainous tracts of the Eastern Gháts attached to several of the large *zamíndárís* of Ganjám and Vizagapatam. On the Nílgiris, the tribe best known to Europeans is the Todas, a stalwart, haughty race, who domineer over the more timid jungle folk, and confine themselves to the pasturing of buffaloes. It is believed that the Todas are now dying out, for at the time of the Census they numbered only 693 persons. The principal wandering tribes are the Brinjaris and Lambadis, who are to be found in all parts of the country as carriers of grain and salt. The Koruver races wander over a wide area in Nellore and the adjacent Districts, and constitute one of the chief criminal classes.

Throughout the whole of Southern India, sect exercises a social influence second only to caste, and caste itself often appears to be founded

upon the most arbitrary distinctions, unknown to the law-books of the Hindus. Thus, in Madras, a broad line of sectarian division separates the community into members of the right-hand and left-hand factions. The origin of this strange division is lost in fable, but at the present day it often occasions disturbance at public festivals. Some weavers are found in the one faction, some in the other; the fisherman sides with the right hand, the hunter with the left; the agricultural labourers range themselves on the right, while their wives attach themselves to the left. With the shoemakers this division of the sexes is reversed.

Religious Classification.—The Hindus, who number in all 28,863,978, or 92·3 per cent. of the population, are subdivided according to their forms of worship into 16,159,610 Sivaites, 11,657,311 Vishnuvites, 154,989 Lingáyats, and 892,068 'others,' including hill tribes. The Sivaites, including also all demon-worshippers who seek to appease the power of evil, are most numerous in the extreme south and on the west coast; the Vishnuvites are chiefly found in the northern Districts. The Lingáyats may be regarded as a heretical sect of Sivaite puritans. Their distinctive tenets are the unity of the godhead in Siva, the repudiation of Bráhman pretensions, the absence of all caste distinctions, and the necessity for respecting women. They derive their name from their characteristic practice of carrying about on their persons the *linga* or emblem of Siva. The sect dates from the 12th century, and is said to owe its origin to Basava, the son of a Sivaite Bráhman and prime minister of the King of Kalyanapura, a city on the Malabar coast at that time the capital of the Karnatic. The Lingáyats never extended north of the Deccan. They are now most numerous in the west of Mysore, where they have almost a monopoly of trade; but they also extend their operations into Madras and the southern Districts of Bombay. The Jains, who are commonly regarded as a surviving offshoot of the Buddhism once predominant throughout the whole peninsula, number only 21,254 in Madras, being chiefly found in the Arcot Districts and Kanara. Like the Lingáyats, their present headquarters is in the neighbouring State of Mysore. The leading tenets of the Jains are reverence for certain sanctified ascetics, respect for every form of animal life, and denial of the infallibility of the Vedas.

The Muhammadans, who number in all 1,857,857, or 5·94 per cent., are thus subdivided according to sect:—Sunnis, 1,654,529, or 89 per cent. of the total; Shiás, 69,302; Wahábís, 3954; unspecified, 130,072. The more familiar division is into the following races:—Labbay, Moplá, Arab, Shaikh and Sayyid, Pathán, Mughal. The Labbays are properly the descendants of Tamil converts to Islám; the name, however, is also used to signify descendants of foreign traders, Arabs, or Persians, by Indian women. They number 312,088, or 16·7 per cent., nearly all found in the extreme south; the majority still follow

their hereditary occupation of trade, while some have become sailors and fishermen. The Moplás or Mapilas, are the descendants of Malayálam converts to the same creed. The head of the Moplás, the Rájá of Cannanore, is descended from a fisher family in Malabar. A seafaring life, trade with Arabia, and Arab missions, led to extensive conversion amongst the fishing races; and at one time, shortly after the European nations appeared in Eastern seas, conversion was largely encouraged by the Muhammadan *Zamorin* of Calicut, with a view to procure seamen to defend the towns on the coast. Subsequently, forcible conversion was attempted by Tipú Sultán, but with no great results. Thousands were removed to Mysore, but few returned, and those who did, for the most part relapsed into Hinduism; but, having partaken of beef and been circumcised, they could not be received back into their original castes. They now are recognised as a separate caste, professing Hinduism. The Moplás are almost confined to the tract between the Western Gháts and the sea. They number 612,789, or 32·7 per cent., 549,912 being found in the single District of Malabar. Further particulars of this sect will be found in the article on MALABAR DISTRICT. They are a hardworking, frugal people, but entirely uneducated and very fanatical; and, under the influence of religious excitement, they have often been a source of danger to the public peace. Shaikhs number 511,112, or 27·3 per cent., and Sayyids, 89,219. These classes represent the Musalmán element from the north, together with descendants of converts made during the period of Muhammadan supremacy. Patháns, numbering 70,943, and Mughals 12,407, are descended from the invaders.

Christians are more numerous in Madras than in any other part of India. They number, in the British Districts, 533,760, or 1·71 per cent. Of these, 40,879 are Europeans or Eurasians, and the remainder native converts; the Roman Catholics number 397,071, and the Protestants 93,228. In the protected States of Travancore and Cochin, the native Christians are still more numerous, constituting as much as one-fourth of the total population. The history of Christianity in Southern India is full of interest. The Syrian Church of Malabar claims to have sprung from the direct teaching of St. Thomas the Apostle. A Syriac MS. of the Bible, brought from Cochin and now in the Fitz-William Library at Cambridge, is plausibly assigned to the 8th century. A Pahlavi inscription, in the ancient church of the Little Mount near Madras, indicates an early settlement of Manichæan or Nestorian Christians on the eastern coast as well as the west. The Census of 1871 returned only 14,335 Nazaranis in the Madras Presidency; but in Travancore the Syrians number 300,000, and in Cochin 40,000. They acknowledge the jurisdiction of the Jacobite Patriarch of Antioch. The Roman Catholics, whose number throughout *all* Southern India is

reckoned at more than 650,000, owe their conversion to two distinct waves of enthusiasm in the 16th and 17th centuries. The first is associated with the great name of St. Francis Xavier, who is to this day the patron saint of the Madras fishermen; the other was effected by the scarcely less celebrated Jesuit Mission of Madura. The Archbishop of Goa has jurisdiction over about 50,000 souls in the south. The rest are under the charge of 10 vicariates of Jesuits, who conduct 6 seminaries for training native priests. They have altogether 16 foreign clergy, and 400 native priests. Their flock numbers about 150,000 in the southern Districts, and about 100,000 each in Travancore, Cochin, and Pondicherri. The Protestant missions date from the beginning of the last century. The Danes were here the pioneers of missionary enterprise; but their work was taken up in 1727 by the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, under whom laboured the great Lutherans of the last century—Schultze, Sartorius, Fabricius, and Schwartz. The Church Missionary Society first entered the field in 1814, and subsequently the Americans have joined in the task of conversion. The most complete statistics for all the Protestant agencies are those of 1872. In that year, the Protestants had in *all* Southern India 196 foreign and 131 native ministers; the number of native Christians, including candidates for baptism, was 160,955; the number of communicants, 33,320; 39,988 boys and 13,668 girls were under Christian instruction; and £6267 was raised by native contributions. The growing success of the work has recently been signalized by the consecration of two eminent missionaries as local bishops, Dr. Caldwell and Dr. Sargent.

Emigration. — The inhabitants of Southern India are not so obstinately attached to their homes as those of the rest of the peninsula. A regular tide of emigration sets towards Ceylon every year, which is mutually advantageous to both countries. Official returns show that an annual average of more than 70,000 Tamil coolies pass over into Ceylon to find work on the coffee plantations; and though the great majority return when the season has closed, it is estimated that about 166,000 persons have permanently settled in Ceylon during the past ten years. In the famine year of 1877, this emigration assumed unusual proportions, and acted as an important relief to the labour market. Similarly, a certain number of Telugu emigrants from the northern Districts, including a considerable proportion of women, annually cross the Bay of Bengal to Burma; but no official record is kept of this movement. Emigration to the more distant labour markets of Mauritius and the West Indies is less popular. During the ten years ending 1871, a total of 55,574 persons left Madras ports for those places; and in the same period, 8884 persons returned. The majority of the coolies proceeded to Mauritius, which is the only British colony employing a recruiting agent in the

Presidency; but a few were attracted to the French colonies of Réunion, Guadaloupe, etc.

Houses and Towns.—Out of the total number of 6,229,954 houses, 863,760, with a population of 5,199,366 persons, were classified in 1871 as of the better sort—*i.e.*, built of masonry, and tiled. The villages and townships are thus arranged in the Census Report:—With fewer than 200 inhabitants, 14,509; with from 200 to 500, 13,408; with from 500 to 1000, 9508; with from 1000 to 2000, 4999; with from 2000 to 3000, 1310; with from 3000 to 5000, 862; with from 5000 to 10,000, 403; with from 10,000 to 15,000, 52; with from 15,000 to 20,000, 14; with from 20,000 to 50,000, 27; with above 50,000, 6; leaving 10,538 unspecified. On the whole, as compared with Bengal or Bombay, urban life may be said to be more highly developed in Madras. Populous cities, indeed, are not numerous; but there is an unusual proportion of towns with from 2000 to 20,000 inhabitants. The following are the 6 cities which have a population of more than 50,000:—MADRAS CITY (1871), 397,552; TRICHINOPOLI, 76,530; TANJORE, 52,175; MADURA, 51,987; BELLARY, 51,766; SALEM, 50,012. Forty-eight towns in the Presidency, including Madras city, have been placed under municipal administration, with an aggregate of 1,592,987 inhabitants, or slightly more than 5 per cent. of the total population.

Agriculture.—Madras can scarcely be regarded as a naturally fertile country. Over the greater part of its area, artificial irrigation is impossible; and cultivation is entirely dependent upon the local rainfall, which rarely exceeds 40 inches in the year, and seems liable to fail both irregularly and at recurrent intervals. The soil may be roughly classified into three varieties—(1) the well-known *regar* or black cotton-soil, met with in isolated patches or wide plains all over the Presidency; (2) red soil, deriving its colour from an admixture of the peroxide of iron, which is also very widely spread, and presents every degree of fertility and barrenness; and (3) grey soil. But the prospects of the cultivator are determined less by the character of the soil than by the facilities for irrigation. The Malabar coast is the only part where the natural rainfall, brought by the south-west monsoon, may be trusted both for its amount and its regularity. Other Districts, such as Bellary, are also dependent upon this monsoon; but in their case the rain-clouds have spent themselves in passing over the barrier range of the Western Gháts, and cultivation becomes a matter of hazard. Over the greater part of the Presidency, the rainy season is caused by the north-east monsoon, which usually breaks towards the end of September. The seed is sown in October, and the crop harvested in February. The fortunate deltas of the three great rivers—the Godávari, Kistna, and Káveri (Cauvery)—are the only spots along

the eastern coast which artificial irrigation is able to save from all risk of occasional scarcity.

The *rayatwárí* system of land administration permits the collection of agricultural statistics in a fairly satisfactory form. Out of a total area of more than 88 million acres, information is available for about 65 millions. Of these, 24 millions are returned as *parambok* or uncultivable, and 14 millions as cultivable waste, leaving 27 millions as actually under crops. Of the total cultivated area, about 84 per cent. is under food grains, 5·2 per cent. under oil-seeds, 1·8 per cent. under green and garden crops, 6·8 per cent. under special crops, such as cotton and indigo, and 2·2 per cent. is returned as orchards, etc. The principal food staples are rice, *cholam*, *kambu*, *rágí* (Eleusine corocana), and *varagu*. Rice is chiefly grown in the alluvial plains of Tanjore, Godávari, and Kistna, and in the lowlands of Malabar and Kanara. Rice is also grown almost exclusively under the tank system, which is widely spread, and very valuable. The revenue derived from wet cultivation under tanks (about 50,000 in number) is variously estimated at £800,000 to £1,000,000. *Cholam* covers the tablelands of Bellary and Kurnool; while *rágí*, the staple of Mysore, is extensively grown in other inland Districts, such as Salem and Coimbatore. The most common oil-seed is gingelly (Sesamum), which is largely used for local consumption, and also exported.

The garden crops of Madras comprise tobacco, largely grown on the islands of the Godávari and Kistna, and in the Districts of Coimbatore and Salem; sugar-cane, chiefly in Bellary and Cuddapah; chillies, betel-leaf, and plantain,—all very widely distributed. The following are the statistics for special crops in 1875-76:—Total area under cotton, 1,445,000 acres, including 385,000 in Bellary, 244,000 in Karnúl (Kurnool), 2000 in Kistna, 184,000 in Coimbatore, and 173,000 in Tinnevelli; total area under indigo, 304,000 acres, including 66,000 in South Arcot, 65,000 in Cuddapah, 57,000 in Nellore, 43,000 in Kistna, and 41,000 in Karnúl; total area under coffee, 53,000 acres, almost entirely confined to Malabar (33,000) and the Nílgiris (16,000). The principal fruit-trees are the cocoa-nut, areca-nut, the date and palmyra palm, jack, tamarind, and mango. The cocoa-nut flourishes luxuriantly on the banks of the backwaters and lagoons in Malabar, while the areca-nut palm is found in the greatest perfection in the lower valleys of the Western Gháts.

According to the official principle of classification, the cultivated area is divided into 'dry,' 'wet,' and garden lands. 'Dry' lands, or those which are solely dependent upon local rainfall, cover about 80 per cent. of the total; 'wet' lands, which are those irrigated from river channels or tanks by the natural flow of the water, about 15 per cent.; and garden lands, which are irrigated by water artificially raised

from wells, etc., about 2 per cent., leaving a balance of 3 per cent. for fallows and pasture lands. On 'dry' lands, the cultivation is of a simple character. Before sowing, the field is ploughed several times in transverse directions; but the native plough seldom penetrates to a greater depth than 3 inches. The seed is generally scattered broadcast from the hand, but sometimes a rude bamboo drill is used. Occasionally, two or even three crops are sown on the same field at the same time, in the hope that at least one may succeed. 'Wet' lands are from their position naturally fertile, apart from the advantages of irrigation. The usual crop is rice, which is sometimes sown broadcast in a soil worked up into a semi-liquid state, and sometimes transplanted. Water is supplied as often as it can be obtained, daily if possible; and on each occasion of watering, the land is flooded to the depth of 1 or 2 inches. Manure is applied wherever available. There is no established system of the rotation of crops, but the principle is recognised that the resources of the soil must not be overtaxed. Exhausting crops are never grown for more than two years in succession; and the working of the *rayatwárí* system, by permitting the relinquishment of holdings, encourages occasional fallows. On garden lands, irrigation is practised on an elaborate scale. Three different methods of raising the water are adopted, according to the height of the field above the source of supply. For low lifts a bucket is used, swung on a rope; this is raised and lowered by two men, while a third upsets it over the field. For higher lifts, up to 12 feet, the *picottah* is used. This ingenious but simple machine is identical with the lever lift of Egypt. A horizontal pole is balanced upon an upright post; on one end the bucket is suspended; the counterbalancing weight at the other end is usually supplied by a man who walks along the pole, but sometimes by a lump of clay. The third form of lift, the *kavalay*, will raise water from wells 40 feet deep. This consists of a leathern bucket, attached to a rope, which runs over a roller, and is worked by a pair of oxen moving up and down an inclined plane.

Coffee and Tea.—The principal coffee tract in Southern India stretches along the slopes of the Western Gháts, from the north of Mysore almost down to Cape Comorin. Coffee was originally introduced into India by a returned pilgrim from Mecca. The larger portion of this area lies in the States of Mysore, Coorg, and Travancore; but the Subdivision of Malabar District known as the Wainád (Wynaad) and the Nílgiri Hills are within the limits of Madras. Coffee cultivation has also been commenced on the Shevaroy Hills in Salem, and the Palni Hills in Madura. The first coffee plantation in the Wainád was opened in 1840 by Mr. Glasson. Many of the early clearings, which were made on bamboo or grass land, proved unprofitable, and have now relapsed into jungle. The enterprise made little

progress until about 1855, when many estates were taken up in South Wainád. In that year, the total exports were only 32,000 cwts. An official inquiry in 1868 showed 30,000 acres under coffee, of which 21,000 were held by Europeans, and 9000 by natives; the exports were 128,000 cwts. On the Nílgiris, coffee now covers about 13,000 acres. In 1875-76, the total export from Southern India was 381,176 cwts., valued at £1,661,110.

The tea plant was introduced on the Nílgiri Hills about forty years ago; but though the experiment was successful, it was not taken up as a commercial speculation until 1865. Even at present, the tea-gardens are on a small scale, rarely exceeding 50 acres; and they are generally worked in subordination to an adjoining coffee estate. The plants include the China variety, the Assam variety, and the hybrid between the two. The hybrid is perhaps the most profitable, combining the leaf-producing quality of the one with the hardiness of the other. There are now altogether about 2000 acres under tea. The exports in 1876-77 amounted to 144,323 lbs., valued at £16,446.

Government Farm.—In 1866, a Government farm was established at Saidapet (Sydapet), in the immediate neighbourhood of the Presidency town. It covers an area of 250 acres within a ring fence, and has been the scene of many important experiments. Attention has been especially paid to subsoil draining, the use of agricultural machines, the utilization of manure, and the introduction of new crops, such as Carolina rice and New Orleans cotton. It has also been proved that by deeper ploughing, green crops for fodder can be raised at all seasons of the year. A school of agriculture has recently been established, and similar training schools have been proposed for other Districts. In 1876-77, the total expenses of the Saidapet farm amounted to £4982; the receipts were £510, the balance being defrayed out of the Surplus Pound Funds.

Cinchona.—The cinchona plant was introduced on the Nílgiri Hills in 1860 by Mr. Clements Markham, who had been officially deputed to visit South America for that purpose. The novel experiment has proved not only successful, but remunerative. The reports up to 1877 returned seven Government plantations, covering an aggregate area estimated at 1200 acres. The number of plants was given at 1,196,458, almost equally divided between C. officinalis and C. succirubra. It should be stated that a Special Committee in 1878 showed that the above local returns as to cultivation are in excess of the facts. The first yield of the plantations was in 1872, when the earliest trees were twelve years old. The out-turn was 7294 lbs. of dry bark, which sold for £729. In 1876, a consignment was sent to England of 63,000 lbs., which realized £9604. In addition, the plantations furnished the Government quinologist with 362,050 lbs. of green, or

111,481 lbs. of dry bark, valued at £9550. The total outlay up to March 1876 had been £82,000; the return during the five previous years had averaged £4700. There are also several private cinchona estates on the Nílgiri Hills, which are cultivated at a profit.

Wages and Prices.—The agricultural labourers of Madras belong to castes that were predial serfs up to the close of the last century. Even at the present time, the conditions of service are not favourable to the labourer. Except in the neighbourhood of towns, wages are always paid in grain, the average rate being from one to two 'measures' (say 3 to 7 lbs.) a day. The lower rate is given to permanent, the higher to occasional, labourers. This distinction is of general significance. The permanent labourers enjoy little liberty, as they have usually received an advance of money from their masters on entering service, which is never cleared off. On the other hand, the occasional labourers, while more independent, lead a most precarious existence. During the harvest seasons they can get regular employment, but at other times they wander about seeking work on the roads and other public works. According to an official return in 1875, the wages of agricultural labourers paid in money varied from Rs. 2. 8 (5s.) a month in Salem, and Rs. 3 (6s.) in Ganjám, to Rs. 7. 8 (15s.) in Kistna, Cuddapah, and Malabar. The wages of a skilled workman, such as a mason or carpenter, ranged from Rs. 7. 8 (15s.) a month in Ganjám, and Rs. 9. 12 (19s. 6d.) in Vizagapatam, to Rs. 20 (£2) in Cuddapah, Madura, and South Kanara, and Rs. 25 (£2, 10s.) in the Nílgiris. The condition of permanent field hands is thus described:—'They are invariably paid their wages in grain, never in money. The rates vary in different Districts, but inquiry has shown that the quantity of cleaned cereal grain is not usually less than from 4 to 5 lbs. per diem, and often more. The labourer often enjoys the privilege of cultivating vegetables, chillies, and a few oil-seeds or nuts on his own account; and as he gets, besides subsistence allowance of grain, a percentage on the yield of the harvest, his prosperity depends greatly on the abundance of the crops. Usually the permanent labourers get small money advances from their masters, and occasional presents of cloth, or a rupee now and again on festival occasions; but whatever money may be advanced by the masters, the labourer is seldom able to repay, and, as a rule, is tied to his servitude for life.'

Though wages have increased during the last quarter of a century, they have not risen at so rapid a rate as prices. In 1875-76, the following were the average quantities of the several kinds of food grain to be obtained for the rupee (2s.):—Common rice, 32 lbs; paddy or unhusked rice, 57 lbs.; *cholam* and *kambu*, 53 lbs.; *rági*, 56 lbs.; *varagu*, 79 lbs.; wheat, 23 lbs. In the famine year of 1876-77, the average price of common rice throughout the Presidency rose to 17

lbs. for the rupee. In Bellary, at the end of 1876, only 15 lbs. of *cholam* could be obtained for the rupee, showing a rise in price of more than threefold.

The Famine of 1876-78.—The great famine which has recently devastated all Southern India can only be slightly touched upon in this place. Like most widespread famines, it was caused by drought, but not by the drought of a single season or of a single year. The harvests of 1875 had been indifferent, especially in the Ceded Districts. In 1876, the south-west monsoon or summer rains, on which the northern Districts are largely dependent, proved very deficient; and the north-east monsoon or autumn rains, on which the southern and eastern Districts almost entirely rely for their cultivation, failed still more completely. Except in the deltas of the Godávari and Kistna, the total rainfall of that year scarcely anywhere exceeded 10 inches, as compared with an average of about 30. When the monsoon failed in October 1876, it was recognised that a twelvemonth's famine was at hand, and inevitable. In 1877, the south-west monsoon withheld its showers for a second time, and distress gradually intensified through the year. At last, the north-east monsoon broke with a full downpour in November 1877, and the crops of the coming season were assured. The area in Madras seriously affected by famine was estimated at 74,000 square miles, with a population of 16,000,000 persons. No District entirely escaped between the Kistna river and Cape Comorin; but the distress was most severe in the tract immediately south of the Tungabhadra, including the Districts of Bellary, Karnúl (Kurnool), Cuddapah, and Nellore, and farther south in North Arcot and Salem. Mysore also suffered exceptionally. As time went on, it was found that no adequate stores of food remained in the country; and but for the efforts of Government, and the vast imports of food brought into the country by the European mercantile houses from Bengal, Burma, and the East, a much greater proportion of the population than actually perished would have been swept away.

During the eighteen months ending January 1878, the total amount of grain imported into Madras by sea was nearly 700,000 tons. The real problem was to bring these stores of food to the starving people. This task was effected by means of the railways, and especially the Madras Railway. This line touches the sea at Madras city and at Beypur; while at Ráichor it joins the Great Indian Peninsula system, thus affording through communication with the rest of India. The South Indian Railway runs northward from Cape Comorin. The total amount of grain distributed in the interior by these several lines between August 1876 and November 1877 was 724,339 tons, yielding a freight of £553,695.

It will never be possible to obtain perfectly complete statistics of the

loss of life caused directly and indirectly by this stupendous calamity. As always happens in such cases, starvation suddenly came with a rush. No administrative capacity and no philanthropic zeal could cope with a distress so intense, and extending over so wide an area. Government relief works on a colossal scale, gratuitous distributions of food at the public expense, and the searching benevolence of private charity, were all tried; and all proved inadequate. Actual starvation slew its thousands, and the manifold diseases that stalked in its train claimed yet more victims. A not unreasonable conjecture, founded on a partial Census, has placed the mortality in the most distressed Districts, such as Bellary and North Arcot, at about one-fourth of the total population. A Census of the entire surviving population of the District of Salem strengthens this inference. Dr. Cornish, the Sanitary Commissioner of Madras, estimates the total loss throughout the Presidency at over three millions, including deaths from various diseases and persons 'missing.' But, until the publication of the Report of the Famine Commissioners, all such private calculations should be received with great caution.

The following statistics, imperfect as they are, will give a general conception of the character of the calamity, and the means adopted to alleviate it:—In Bellary District, one-third of the inhabitants were in receipt of relief, and one-half of the land fell temporarily out of cultivation. In one week of September 1877, a grand total of 2,341,692 persons received Government relief, of whom 708,255 were employed on works, and the rest relieved gratuitously. The mortality in Madras city during the year 1877 was at the rate of 116·7 per thousand. At one relief camp in Salem District, during May 1877, 746 persons died out of an average strength of 7000. The expenditure in India on account of famine during the two years ending March 1878 (including loss of revenue), is officially estimated at nearly 10 millions sterling, of which by far the largest portion is debited against Madras. The amount subscribed by private charity, chiefly at the London Mansion-House, reached a total of £820,000. This large sum was distributed through the agency of local committees, principally in providing seed grain, plough cattle, and other permanent necessaries of living, and in supporting those who for various reasons lay beyond the reach of Government relief.

Irrigation.—The irrigation works in Madras may be classified under three headings, the classification being determined, not by their hydrographic character, but from the administrative point of view. The first two classes of works, known as Ordinary and Extraordinary, are constructed and kept in repair at the sole charges of Government, and are under the Department of Public Works; the third class belongs to the Madras Irrigation Company. The Ordinary Works may be described as those for which no capital and revenue accounts are

kept; that is to say, they consist of undertakings, individually small, but very large in the aggregate, which do not form part of any comprehensive system, which supplies collated calculations of profit and loss. According to the official classification, they are ranked as unproductive, and are therefore constructed out of revenue. They are subdivided into (1) rain-fed tanks or reservoirs, and (2) channels led off from rivers by means of anicuts or weirs. In the first case, the rainfall is caught and retained before it reaches natural drainage lines; in the second, it is diverted from the drainage lines by artificial means. The following figures will show the general importance of these Ordinary Irrigation Works:—There are altogether in the several Districts of the Presidency 33,318 tanks and canals under Government supervision, besides 1212 weirs across rivers or streams; the total area irrigated is 3,365,000 acres, yielding a revenue of £1,310,000. In the year 1876-77, the sum expended on original works of this class, and on repairs, was £135,232. The total Ordinary expenditure of the irrigation department in the same year (out of current revenue and exclusive of borrowed capital) was £255,600.

Concerning the so-called Extraordinary Works, it is possible to speak with more definiteness. These consist of large projects, constructed out of borrowed capital; and are defined as being such as give a reasonable promise that they will yield a return at least equal to the interest of the capital expended. The following is a list of the eight works now comprehended under this class:—(1) Godávari Delta, (2) Kistna Delta, (3) Pennar Anicut, (4) Chembrambakam Tank, (5) Palar Anicut, (6) Pelandorai Anicut, (7) Káveri (Cauvery) Delta, (8) Srivaiguntam Anicut. Up to the close of 1874-75, the total amount of capital expended on these eight works was £1,488,840; the gross revenue in that year was £373,442, and the working expenses, £37,098, leaving a net revenue or profit of £336,344. According to the method officially adopted in keeping the profit and loss account, the average return on capital was 23 per cent., ranging from 85 per cent. in the case of the Káveri (Cauvery) Delta Works to 1 per cent. for the Palar Anicut. Out of the total revenue, £6868 was derived from tolls on navigation, of which £4760 was paid on the Godávari, and £2108 on the Kistna.

The Madras Irrigation and Canal Company was incorporated in the year 1858; and in 1863, a contract was entered into with the Indian Government for the construction of a specified piece of work at a cost of 1 million sterling, on which sum Government guaranteed interest at the rate of 5 per cent. The selected work was that known as the Tungabhadra project, which comprised the construction of a canal both for irrigation and navigation from Sunkesala, 15 miles above the town of Karnúl (Kurnool) on the Tungabhadra, to the Kistnapatam estuary

on the sea-coast in Nellore. The Company undertook the section of this enterprise which extends from Sunkesala to Sumaiswaram on the Pennar river. By 1866 all their original capital was expended, and an additional loan of £600,000 was obtained from Government. The work was virtually completed in 1871. From a financial point of view, it has hitherto proved a failure. The receipts from water rates have amounted to an average of about £6000 a year, against a yearly expenditure on maintenance of nearly £20,000. However, the famine of 1876-77 called attention to the undeveloped capacity of the undertaking. The cultivators have recently shown more disposition to use the water placed at their disposal, and a serious effort is now being made to stimulate navigation. Up to the close of 1876-77, the total sum credited to capital account was £1,702,947; the area irrigated in that year rose, under the stimulus caused by the failure of the monsoons, to 39,954 acres, nearly equally divided between the two Districts of Karnúl and Cuddapah; the gross revenue was £18,434, and the expenditure on revenue account, £16,000. The charge for water averages a little more than 6s. per acre.

Land Tenures.—The greater part of the soil of Madras is held by the cultivators direct from Government, under the tenure known as *rayatwárí*. But a proper understanding of the land system now prevailing in Madras cannot be obtained without a short sketch of its history. As has been already stated in the historical section, the wide area of territory now subjected to one Government possessed in ancient days no uniformity of administration. When the Nizám of the Deccan, and his nominal subordinate, the Nawáb of the Karnatic, ceded to the British the large tracts which still constitute the bulk of the Madras Presidency, the revenue collection with most other branches of administration was found to be in a state of anarchy. In the north, the hill chiefs exercised a wide but uncertain authority over the lowlands; in the south, their place was taken by the *paligárs*, who fought bravely for fiscal independence. Along the Malabar coast, the dominant caste of Nairs claimed the position of feudal landlords, which they have not unsuccessfully maintained to this day. In the neighbourhood of Madras city, the indigenous village communities appear to have preserved their corporate privileges with some tenacity; but throughout the greater part of the country, no rights intervened between the actual cultivator of the soil and the British Government. Under these circumstances, it became necessary to provide some definite system which should guarantee the regular collection of the land revenue. At first, in imitation of the precedent supplied by the Permanent Settlement of Bengal by Lord Cornwallis in 1793, it was proposed to establish a class of landholders throughout Madras, with absolute rights over the land, subject only to the payment of a rent-

charge fixed in perpetuity. This system never found favour with the local Government, but it was enforced under positive orders from England in 1802. The land already in possession of *zamíndárs* was confirmed to them for ever; and where no *zamíndárs* could be found, the country was artificially parcelled out into estates of convenient size called *mútahs*, and settled in perpetuity with any one who came forward to bid for them. These operations were confined to the territory that had been longest under the rule of the Company, comprising the Northern Circars, the tract round Madras known as the Jágír, and the Barámahál in the present District of Salem. In the meantime, the area of British territory had been growing rapidly, and the fundamental principles of land settlement were allowed to come up a second time for consideration. The *zamíndárí* system, with a permanent assessment, had not proved successful; for the artificial landlords, who had accepted too high rates, threw up their farms one after another. On the other hand, the *rayatwárí* tenure found a strenuous advocate in the person of Colonel (afterward Sir Thomas) Munro, whose influence is still to be traced in almost every District of Madras. The alternative proposal of collecting the revenue through the agency of the village communities was also considered, but met with little support, though tried for a short time in the extreme south. Finally, in 1820, after much hot discussion, the Court of Directors resolved to adopt what was then called 'the improved *rayatwárí* system;' and Sir Thomas Munro was appointed Governor of Madras in that year to carry out his own favourite scheme.

The earliest *rayatwárí* settlement of which we have any knowledge in the Madras Presidency, and which still survives in full operation, is that of the District of Kanara, framed in the 14th century, and revised in the 16th by the Bednúr government. It was based on an estimate or valuation of the annual out-turn of the rice land and plantations then under cultivation within the properties, great or small, held by the agricultural population of the District. Each owner—and in the case of escheats to the State (*circár-gweni*), each tenant—was brought into account (*warg*) with the revenue officers in respect to the fixed land tax (*shist*) assessed on his cultivation each year; and the settlement survived, with many vicissitudes and arbitrary additions to the demand (*shámilát*), in remarkable completeness, all things considered, until the British rule supervened in 1799. The ancient *rayatwárí* settlement was at once accepted and affirmed by the first settlement officer in the District, Major (afterwards Sir Thomas) Munro; and it is this form of *rayatwárí* settlement for which he successfully contended in preference to the próposed parcelling out of the District amongst farmers of revenue, who could not even look to waste or forest for the improvement of their income, both being included in the immemorial posses-

sions of the ancient proprietary. When the chief holder was, as in many cases, raised to the proprietorship by special grant, a separate title-deed (*mulpatta*) was conferred on the occupant. The next *rayatwárí* settlement in historical order, likewise of native origin, was that made with the tenantry and occupants of the land of the hereditary proprietary (*jenmi*) of Malabar by Arshed Beg, Tipú Sultán's revenue officer, in 1784 and subsequently. For all practical purposes, Malabar had been a free and unconquered country until the Muhammadan invasion; its Hindu feudal princes (*rájáts*) and great proprietors (*jenmi*) lived on the rents (*jenmi-patan*) of their estates, and such royalties as were levied were in the main unconnected with the soil; the land remained unassessed to any land tax or State dues. During the confusion consequent on the Muhammadan invasion, the great bulk of the Hindu proprietary fled to Travancore, or otherwise eluded the settlement officers of the conqueror; and a *zamíndárí* settlement with the great hereditary proprietary (*jenmi*) was impossible. A *rayatwárí* settlement was therefore made in the main with their tenantry (*kanomkárs*), and with the smaller proprietors who occupied their own land. Broadly speaking, the rent (*jenmi-patan*) payable by the tenant in respect of his holding was ascertained, and three-fifths of the amount was claimed as revenue due in future to the State, two-fifths being left to discharge the reduced demand of the landlord. Changes and modifications have intervened; but to the present day this *rayatwárí* settlement (on the estimated rent-roll) is the basis of the revenue administration of Malabar, and the bulk of the demand, especially as regards the properties of great Rájás and Namburi estates, is now discharged by tenantry under the varied tenures of the country. The *rayatwárí* settlement here alters no old tenures, and creates no new rights; it gives no permanency to the lease or occupation, and does not protect against a rise of rent at the will of the proprietor. But as a rule, our *rayatwárí* settlement has been in Districts where the ancient Hindu village system retained its vitality; and over the greater part of the country our introduction of a *rayatwárí* settlement was simply a transition from the more truly characteristic and national village joint-settlement—which subsisted in parts of the Northern Circars till 1860—to an individual settlement with each cultivating member of the community.

The ancient Hindu village system still underlies every form of our land administration in South India. The *zamíndár* has always treated his village communities as the units of rent and of revenue responsibilities, and almost invariably does so still. Where no such superior lord existed, or now exists, the village has always been, and is still, the unit of land revenue administration, and of rural social condition. It was so under the now obsolete village joint-rent settlement, which was the natural and prevailing form of revenue arrangement

under the rulers who preceded the English, and indeed during the early years of our own rule. The abortive *mutadárí* settlement consisted in parcelling out the undivided villages of the country into convenient farms for the collection of the revenue. The village is still the unit of administration under the more recent and Europeanized *rayatwárí*, or individual settlement with the sharers in village lands.

The difference lies in that, under the former system, the village community as a body was responsible for the apportionment of the lump demand amongst their cultivating members and sharers in the village lands; under the *rayatwárí* settlement, the head of the village and village accountant keep accounts with each tenure-holder or cultivator within the limits of the village, for the demand assessed on his individual holding, whether that demand be (as is still the case in Districts not yet subjected to Survey settlement operation) the old prescriptive demand, or the newly determined claim under the Survey settlement for thirty years. The *rayatwárí* system of settlement has imparted more permanence to tenures. A separate fixed possession of land was inconsistent with the village joint-settlement. The demand to be paid by each sharer in the village lands is now fixed. But on the other hand, this form of settlement, when extended to communities fully subject to the Hindu village organization, has traversed the spirit of that institution, and weakened, if not entirely relaxed, those ties of common interest and of mutual support and liability which were the bonds of Indian rural life. As respects the tenure of land under a village *rayatwárí* settlement, — subject to the punctual discharge of the assessed rent-charge or demand on his holding, and sale of the land by public auction, free of all encumbrances, in case of legal default,—the control of a village landholder under a *rayatwárí* settlement over his property is complete and indefeasible as respects the exercise of all proprietary right, such as sale, gift, inheritance, alienation, partition, voluntary relinquishment (including the responsibility for the revenue), and the like. He can only be ousted by Government by sale for default, or under the Land Appropriation Laws. The only difference between the condition of landholders under a *zamíndárí* and a *rayatwárí* settlement lies in the pledge held by the former against future increased demand by the public fisc. Nor is even this difference consistent with the earliest conceptions of the *rayatwárí* settlement. The first advocates of this system, as against a *zamíndárí* or *mutadárí* settlement, did not seek to deprive the smaller landholders and peasant proprietary in Government villages of that fixity of demand, which was the guiding object and spirit of the administration at the time; and the early *rayatwárí* settlements of Salem and Kanara were designed to be permanent in respect to all land under cultivation within assessed occupied holdings. But under the uncertainty caused by the discus-

sion of the relative merits of the two systems, written engagements (*sanad* and *kábuliyát*) were not exchanged at the time; and before the *rayatwárí* system was sanctioned for general adoption, the disadvantages of the *zamíndárí* settlement were becoming apparent, and the privilege of a permanent *rayatwárí* settlement was withheld.

A settlement of the land revenue of a great Presidency, which practically comprised an individual arrangement with each independent landholder or sharer in the village property, and further required the issue of an annual notice of demand (*patta*) in detail to each revenue-payer, necessarily involved an enormous amount of adjustment of account each year at the hands of the Collector and a multitude of subordinates, down to the village accountant of almost every village. Voluntary relinquishment, fresh occupation, changes of possession, and the like, had to be registered; but circumstances added greatly to these causes of fluctuation. The main items of demand which had to appear on the *patta* had the usual Indian tendency to become prescriptive and unalterable from year to year. They practically did become so very generally, especially in prosperous Districts like Malabar and Kanara, and in respect to the better classes of land, in every District. But the necessity of giving large remissions for a variety of causes and under a vast number of *pattas*, of making and recovering advances for cultivation (*tankárí*), settling deserted farms and the like, gave to the widespread inquisition into these matters and the settlement of the village accounts (*jamábandi*) much of the appearance, and some of the characteristics, of an annual *rayatwárí* settlement. The *ulungu* adjustment of the demand in Tanjore and Tinnevelli was practically an annual settlement on the corrected prices of the year. But the chronic agricultural depression (the consequence of low prices and dearth of agricultural capital, which prevailed throughout the first forty or fifty years of the history of this settlement) greatly enhanced the labour and difficulty of the annual *jamábandi*. Circumstances have entirely changed within the last twenty-five years; a permanent and considerable growth in the prices of all agricultural produce, increased cultivation of the more valuable products, and other circumstances of advancing prosperity, have enabled the husbandmen to do without remissions. Except in rare years, and under special circumstances, advances are no longer made for cultivation, and the *ulungu* has given place in Tanjore and Tinnevelli to an acreable settlement of demand. The revised Survey settlement has removed many obstacles to the punctual realization of the revenue, which has now become easy, punctual, and acceptable to the people. Owing to increased cultivation and other causes, the aggregate yield has risen 20 to 25 per cent. The annual *jamábandi* is an easy and a short operation, and in the absence of change, the issue of annual *pattas* is falling into disuse.

Where the assessment is still imposed as at the beginning of this century, the rate on irrigated land is occasionally as high as £3, 10s. per acre, and that on unirrigated land as high as 9s. The minimum on both kinds of land sinks to less than a shilling, and the total number of rates in a single District may be as large as 885. In those Districts where the new Survey and Settlement have been introduced, the rates vary from 6d. to £1, 4s. per acre; and the total number for a whole District does not exceed 35. Taking the average of the entire Presidency, the assessment per acre is about 2s. 3d. on unirrigated, and 9s. 6d. on irrigated land. In the year 1875-76, the total receipts from land revenue amounted to £4,545,013.

Survey and Settlement.—The original introduction of the *rayatwárí* system was based upon no scientific measurement of the land, or classification of the productiveness of the soil, and considerable confusion incident to such deficiencies prevailed throughout the country as respects revenue administration. Added to this, the revenue demand had in almost every District become exceedingly oppressive. In the main, the old prescriptive revenue demand of the Madras Presidency was based on the assumption of a share of the crop—as high, generally, as one-half in theory—commuted into money rent-charge at the high prices current in the early years of the century. Prices steadily declined in subsequent years, and, between 1830 and 1845, had fallen so much below the commutation rates that much land was thrown up and remained out of cultivation, and the condition of the agricultural population became depressed and critical. In 1858, a department of Revenue Survey was established, and in the same year a revision of the Settlement was begun. The Survey, as now organized, is conducted on the most approved scientific principles. It combines the operations of a cadastral survey with those of a perfect topographical survey on a trigonometrical basis. The standard scale of 16 inches to the mile is, however, confined to cultivated Government villages; hill tracts and *zamíndárí* estates are mapped on scales varying from 4 inches to ½ an inch to the mile. Up to the close of 1875-76, a total area of 40,407 square miles had been finished on the regular scale, and 17,393 square miles on the smaller scale; while 13,420 village maps had been published.

Settlement operations follow in the wake of the Survey, with the object of removing anomalies and fixing the land revenue on a satisfactory footing. These operations are proverbially tedious, but on their thoroughness depend both the efficiency and justice of Indian local administration. The entire series of circumstances affecting the production of every village come up for consideration. Questions of meteorology, geology, and sometimes chemistry, have to be determined. Agricultural experiments have to be conducted; the local records of plenty and famine have to be searched; and the probabilities of

improved means of communication have to be reckoned. Finally, a table is framed showing the yield of each class of soil, and this yield is commuted into money by an average struck on twenty years' market prices, after allowing various abatements. From the value of the gross produce thus determined, the cost of cultivation is deducted, and then the remainder or net produce is divided into two equal moieties, of which one is taken as the Government demand on the land. This one-half of the net produce may be regarded as equal to nearly 40 per cent. of the gross produce of land irrigated from Government works, and to about one-third of the gross produce of other land. Up to the close of 1875-76, the new Settlement had been introduced into the whole or part of 9 Districts. The cost from the commencement had been £237,500 at the rate of 4 annas (or 6d.) per acre. The additional revenue now realized is about £55,000, being at the rate of 24 per cent. on the outlay, not including the prospective increase to be derived from waste lands, comprised in the Settlement but not yet taken up for cultivation.

Zamíndárí or Permanently Settled Estates.—Though the *rayatwárí* system of settlement may be regarded as the characteristic feature of Madras, yet proprietary estates on the Bengal model are by no means rare in all parts of the Presidency. These estates conform generally to one of two types. They are either the remains of ancient principalities, which the holder cannot sell or encumber beyond his own life interest, the succession being hereditary in the eldest son; or they are creations of British rule, dating from 1802, and subject to the usual Hindu rule of partition. The chief *zamíndárís* of the first class are those of PARLA KIMEDY in Ganjám, VIZIANAGARAM in Vizagapatam, PITTAPUR in Godávari, VENKATAGIRI in Nellore, RAMNAD and SIVAGANGA in Madura, all of which see separately. The total area of the *zamíndárí* estates of both classes is roughly estimated at more than 20 million acres, or one-fifth of the whole Presidency. The *peshkash* or tribute payable to Government in perpetuity amounts to £513,000.

Ináms or Revenue Free Grants.—It was the immemorial practice of native governments, whether Hindu or Muhammadan, to alienate the land revenue either for religious endowments, or in favour of certain classes of privileged persons, and for services rendered to the State or local communities. The British Government has in the main adopted the alternative policy of granting pensions in money for service rendered; but it has always scrupulously respected ancient land grants. The following is a classification of the *ináms* or revenue-free tenures found in the Madras Presidency:—(1) Lands held by religious institutions, with an estimated area of 1,458,081 acres, on which the Government assessment would be £242,247; the larger portion of these are held by the pagodas in the Southern Districts, at Tripati, Conjevaram, Srírangam, Rámeswaram, and Madura: (2) grants for purposes

of public utility, chiefly for providing water and shade:—total area 156,549 acres, with a hypothetical assessment of £30,791: (3) lands held for the maintenance of irrigation works, with an area of 24,824 acres; hypothetical assessment, £14,071; these are chiefly to be found in the North, where they are known as *dasabhandams*: (4) grants of subsistence to Bráhmans and other religious personages; these form nearly one-half of the whole, with an area of 3,964,394 acres; hypothetical assessment, £548,993: (5) grants of maintenance to the families and officials of dispossessed *paligárs* or local chieftains, chiefly found in the Ceded Districts and in Salem: (6) grants for the maintenance of the dependants of similar chieftains, chiefly in the Northern Circars and in Madura: (7) *kuttabadis*, or lands held by police officials, chiefly in the Ceded Districts and North Arcot: (8) those held for ordinary revenue and police service, in connection with the village community: and (9) those held by various descriptions of village artisans. These two last classes have recently been practically abolished, as part of a comprehensive scheme of reform, by which in the future all village servants will receive remuneration by fixed salaries. In 1858, an Inám Commission was appointed, with the object of ascertaining definitely the rights of the various classes of *inámdárs*, and of commuting service tenures for fee-simple. Possession for fifty years was decided to give a good title. In the case of personal grants, the holder was offered the alternative of retaining the land subject to the liability of lapse, and without the power of alienation; or of enfranchising it by the payment of a moderate quit-rent or a lump sum. Service tenures, where the service was still performed, and religious endowments were continued on the existing terms; where the services were no longer required, the holders were granted the same terms of commutation as in the case of personal grants. The result of the operations of the Inám Commission has been very successful. Up to the close of 1875-76, the total number of *ináms* confirmed was 403,977, with an aggregate area of 6,240,811 acres, on which the full assessment would have been £972,901. The old *jodi* or quit-rent of £89,946 has been raised to £124,443; and the holders have received an indefeasible Government title. The total cost of the operations has been £132,390.

Manufactures. — Madras possesses few staple manufactures, apart from the village industries which supply the simple wants of the people. The preparation of the coffee-berry for export, which is scarcely a manufacture, is the sole business carried on in the Presidency by European capital and under European supervision; with the exception of a little tea. There is nothing corresponding to the manufacture of tea and opium in Bengal, or to the cotton and jute mills of Bombay and Calcutta; and indigo, though largely manufactured in different parts of Madras, is of inferior quality. Repeated efforts have been made by English capitalists to introduce European methods of smelting iron in

various parts of the Presidency, but hitherto these attempts have been uniformly unsuccessful. Almost the only example of a remunerative English factory at the present day is the Aska Sugar Works in Ganjám, which manufactures sugar for export, and rum and rice-spirit for local consumption. The produce of this factory has repeatedly obtained honourable mention at exhibitions in Europe.

According to the Census returns of 1871, there were 540,601 males engaged in manufacture, of whom nearly three-fourths were weavers. Up to the close of the last century, cotton goods constituted the main article of export to foreign countries. Masulipatam, where the first English factory on the Coromandel coast was established in 1620, enjoyed a special reputation for its chintzes, which were valued for the freshness and permanency of their dyes, the colours being brighter after washing than before. There is still a small demand for these articles in Burma, the Straits, and the Persian Gulf; but Manchester goods have nearly beaten the Indian exporter out of the field. Native looms, however, still hold their own in the local market, in face of strenuous competition. In 1875-76, the total export of Madras cotton goods was valued at only £278,040, against an importation of English piece-goods and cotton twist to the aggregate value of £2,670,691. After weaving, working in metals appears to be the most widespread native industry. In 1871, the total number of males thus employed was 126,117, of whom blacksmiths numbered 40,000, and gold and silver smiths, 70,000. The remaining classes of village artisans comprise shoemakers (113,000), potters (50,000), weavers of baskets (16,000), tailors (15,000). Among local specialities which have attracted European curiosity, may be mentioned the jewellery of Trichinopoli, the manufacture of ornaments and knick-knacks of ivory and horn at Vizagapatam, and the carving of sandal-wood in Kanara.

Salt Manufacture. — The sale of salt is a monopoly of Government, the manufacture being carried on only on its account, and under close supervision. The process employed is solar evaporation; and the entire coast-line on the east, from Orissa to Cape Comorin, affords natural facilities for the industry. On the west, a little salt is manufactured in Kanara District, but the bulk of the supply is obtained by importation from Bombay. There are altogether 68 depôts in the Presidency; but it is not possible to estimate the area of land occupied by salt-pans. These are held as private property, the Government recognising a right of possession in the holders analogous to that of the *rayatwárí* cultivation tenure. From the backwaters and inlets that abound along the coast-line, the salt water is baled up by means of the *picottah* or native lever and bucket into shallow reservoirs, where it is allowed to stand for a few days in order to acquire consistency. It is then drawn off into still shallower enclosures or pans. Here it remains until all moisture has evaporated, and the dry salt can be scraped up. This

process is repeated from twelve to fifteen times in the course of the season, which lasts from January until the periodical rains put a stop to the manufacture in July. On delivery of the salt to the Government depôts, a price called *kudivaram* is paid, varying from 10 *pies* to 3 *ánnás* 7 *pies* per *maund* of 82⅗ lbs., or approximately from 1¾d. to 7½d. per cwt. The average of this payment is 1 *ánná* 5·8 *pies* per *maund*, or about 3d. per cwt. The total cost to Government, including the expenses of supervision and every other item, is estimated at 3 *ánnás* 5·6 *pies* per *maund*, or about 7d. per cwt. The price charged by Government to the consumer, or rather to the retail dealer, has varied considerably both in time and place. At the beginning of the present century, it was only 9 *ánnás* 4 *pies* per *maund*, or 1s. 8d. per cwt., at which it remained almost uniformly until 1846, when it was raised to 1 rupee per *maund*, or 2s. 9d. per cwt. By 1870, the price had further risen to Rs. 2 per *maund*, or 5s. 6d. per cwt., charged generally on the east coast, with a higher price in the District of Ganjám, and on the west coast, where importation from Bombay enhanced the cost to the State. A uniform rate of Rs. 2. 8 per *maund*, or 6s. 10d. per cwt., has now been fixed for the whole of India. In 1875-76, the total amount of salt manufactured and imported was 10,451,248 *maunds*, or 7,651,806 cwts., of which 3,241,025 *maunds*, or 2,551,464 cwts., were consumed locally, and about the same quantity was sent inland for consumption. It is estimated that the average consumption of salt throughout the Presidency is 11·28 lbs. per head, and that the price ultimately paid by the consumer is about ¾d. per lb. The total amount of revenue realized by Government from this source in 1875-76 was £1,353,789. In 1876-77, a Joint Commission, under the orders of the Government of India, thoroughly investigated the past and existing salt administration of the Presidency, and several of the recommendations made in their exhaustive report are in course of execution. The importation of salt by Government from Bombay for the use of the west coast Districts has ceased, and the manufacture and sale of salt under a system of excise is in course of partial trial.

Arrack and Toddy.—The preparation of these two intoxicating liquors is also a Government monopoly. Arrack or country spirit, which may be described as a species of rum, is distilled from sugar or jaggery, the source of the sugar being either the cane, the palmyra, the cocoa-nut, or the date-palm. The Government exercise their monopoly in respect to arrack by farming out, under triennial leases, the exclusive right of distillation, and vend within entire Districts or parts of Districts to contractors, who guarantee a minimum excise revenue for each year of their lease. In the town of Madras, arrack is distilled by lessees of the Government distillery on account of Government, by whose officers the liquor is then issued to the retail dealers; these again contract to sell a certain minimum quantity of liquor in their respective shops at prescribed prices, and thus guarantee a minimum revenue from each shop. The

consumption of arrack in the large towns of the Presidency is estimated to amount to an average of half a gallon per head of population. In the year 1875-76, the total revenue realized from this source under the heading of *abkárí* was £387,606. The preparation of toddy is a familiar process in every Madras village. In this case also domestic manufacture and sale are forbidden, and the right of vend is farmed out to toddy-renters. Toddy is the fermented juice of several kinds of palm. Throughout the northern Districts it is almost invariably made from the date-palm; in the southern Districts, from the cocoa-nut and the palmyra; and on the western coast, from the cocoa-nut only. From the date the juice is obtained merely by making an incision in the bark and allowing it to exude. The average produce is said to be 1 gallon per tree on every alternate day. The juice may be taken at any period of the year, but only during three months out of the twelve. In the case of the palmyra, the ends of the young shoots are cut and squeezed in a rude apparatus for eight days, after which time the juice begins to flow. The produce is about 2 bottles per day, the male trees yielding only from January to April, the female from February to May. Cocoa-nut toddy is obtained in a similar way, and the average produce is the same, but the trees cannot be tapped for more than six months in the year. The total *abkárí* revenue from toddy in 1875-76 amounted to £211,403. In Karnúl (Kurnool), a spirit is distilled from *ippa* or *mahuá* flowers (Bassia latifolia); in the *zamíndárí* of Jáipur (Jeypore), a fermented liquor called *sauda* is brewed from grain, resembling the *pachwai* or rice-beer of Bengal; and in one *táluk* of Trichinopoli District, a spirit is distilled from rice. On the Nílgiri Hills and at Bellary, country beer is now manufactured by European firms, subject to an excise duty of 6d. per gallon.

Railways.—Two guaranteed railway companies, the Madras and the South Indian, have their lines almost entirely within the Presidency. The Madras Railway, which connects at Ráichor with the Great Indian Peninsular system, runs south-east to Madras, and then west across the peninsula to Beypur, with branches to Bellary and Bangalore. Total length open in 1877, 858 miles; capital expended, £10,074,945; gross receipts, £919,902; net revenue, £374,723. The South Indian Railway on the narrow gauge runs northward from Tuticorin to Madras. Total length in 1877, 600 miles; capital expended, £3,759,621; gross receipts, £309,853; net earnings, £150,421. Both these railways were of invaluable service in carrying grain into the interior of the country during the recent famine. Without their aid nothing could have prevented most serious depopulation of the more distressed tracts.

Commerce and Trade.—The continuous seaboard of the Madras Presidency, without any natural harbours of the first rank, has tended to create a widely diffused trade. Madras city, as by far the chief centre of population and the eastern terminus of the railway system,

conducts nearly one-half of the total sea-borne commerce; next comes Malabar District, containing the western railway terminus near Calicut; then Godávari, with its cluster of ports along the fringe of the delta; Tinnevelli, with the new harbour at Tuticorin, which has opened large dealings with Ceylon; Tanjore, South Kanara, Ganjám, and Vizagapatam, in the order given. As compared with the other Presidencies, the trade of Madras is broadly marked by the larger proportion assigned to coasting trade with other Indian ports and with Ceylon. Madras produces no staple of export corresponding to the raw cotton of Bombay, or the jute, indigo, tea, and oil-seeds of Bengal. The aggregate excess of export value, or favourable balance of trade, is comparatively much smaller in Madras than in the case of either of the other two Presidencies. The following table exhibits the principal items of foreign trade for 1875-76:—

FOREIGN TRADE OF THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY IN 1875-76.

IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
Cotton piece-goods,	£1,431,851	Coffee,	£1,661,111
Cotton twist,	1,238,840	Raw cotton,	1,652,849
Metals,	499,681	Hides and skins,	1,081,585
Railway stores,	459,529	Rice and paddy,	958,576
Rice and paddy,	357,330	Seeds,	586,690
Wearing apparel,	181,015	Indigo,	473,163
Timber,	151,762	Spices,	405,213
Raw silk,	141,037	Oils,	344,204
Spices and betel-nuts,	130,550	Cotton goods,	278,040
Spirits,	102,453	Provisions,	238,065
Wine,	83,574	Sugar,	194,083
Grain of sorts,	82,153	Coir and rope,	189,097
Provisions, etc.,	73,915	Cocoa-nuts,	114,460
Drugs and medicines,	60,452	Timber,	104,511
Malt liquors,	50,246	Tobacco,	73,234
Paper,	41,694	Dyes of sorts,	58,133
Woollen manufactures,	39,315	Grain of sorts,	38,593
Seeds,	28,412	Salt,	36,858
Glass,	27,564	Drugs,	31,259
Silk manufactures,	23,570	Horns,	22,591
Machinery,	21,478	Vegetables, etc.,	16,108
Tea,	21,420	Wax,	14,309
Coral,	17,691	Silk,	13,791
Wheat,	17,662	Saltpetre,	8,483
Books,	17,350	Hemp,	6,635
Stationery,	14,137	Mats,	5,714
Earthenware,	11,963	Wheat,	3,629
Dyeing materials,	10,107	Jewellery,	3,444
Miscellaneous,	1,085,954	Miscellaneous,	268,916
Total goods,	£6,422,705	Total goods,	£8,883,344
Government stores,	£342,047	Treasure,	£437,154
Government salt,	87,696		
Treasure,	956,208		
Grand total,	£7,808,656	Grand total,	£9,320,498

Trade with British Indian ports *not within* the Presidency shows imports in 1875-76 valued at £2,375,771, against exports valued at £1,640,706: trade with British Indian ports *within* the Presidency—imports, £1,834,207; exports, £1,854,683: trade with Indian ports other than British—imports, £49,409; exports, £246,366. The total number of vessels engaged in foreign trade that cleared and entered Madras ports in 1875-76 was 6866, with a tonnage of 1,208,745. Of these, 260 were steamers, with 355,066 tons; 3472 sailing vessels, with 383,326 tons, were British Indian; and 2625, with 151,922 tons, were Native. In the same year, the coasting trade was conducted by 10,908 vessels, with 3,097,235 tons, for other British Indian ports, and 31,665 vessels, with 3,029,769 tons, for ports within the Presidency. The importance of this active coasting trade may be gathered from the fact, that in 1876-77 (the first year of famine) the imports of grain suddenly rose to 652,850 tons, valued at £6,156,224, of which by far the greater part consisted of rice from Bengal.

Administration.—The supreme executive authority is vested in the Governor, with a Council of three Members, of whom one is the Commander-in-Chief; the two others belong to the Covenanted Civil Service. For legislative purposes, this Council is increased by the presence of the Advocate-General and from four to eight other members nominated by the Governor, of whom not less than one-half must be non-officials. The following is a list of the departments among which the central administration is partitioned:—Financial, judicial, public, educational, political, ecclesiastical, marine, legislative, revenue, pension, public works, railways, military. The local administration is organized with the District or Zilá as its unit. Of these Districts there are 21 in all, including the Nílgiris and Madras city, both of which occupy an exceptional position. Each of the remaining Districts is under the jurisdiction of a Collector-Magistrate and a Sessions Judge. The Collector-Magistrate, as his name implies, combines the functions of a fiscal and a judicial officer. Beneath him come Deputy Collectors, Sub-Collectors, and Assistants. Each District is subdivided into *táluks* or *tálukas*, numbering 156 in all, under the charge of a *tahsíldár*. Each *táluk* comprises from 50 to 100 villages, which constitute the ultimate units for fiscal and administrative purposes. The hereditary village officials, to be found in almost every Hindu village, have ever been utilized to perform minor public offices, revenue and judicial, being inadequately remunerated either by fees in grain and other cesses levied from the villagers, or by a partial reduction in their land assessment. The heads of villages and village accountants (*karnam*) collect and account for all revenue, rates, and taxes within their respective villages or townships.

With the lapse of years, and from other causes, however, confusion more or less complete has overtaken the old hereditary village establishments throughout the country. In large numbers of villages, establishments are incomplete, in many altogether wanting; in others, the sharers in office and emoluments are needlessly numerous. Landed *ináms* and remissions of revenue have become separated from the service to which they belong; grain fees and other miscellaneous sources of emolument have become uncertain, and their collection difficult, uncertain, and open to abuse; and other demands on the people have become obsolete or oppressive. With a view, therefore, to completeness of establishments and their adequate and suitable remuneration, an entire reorganization of village service has been in progress for some years throughout the Presidency. Deficiencies in the establishments of each village are supplemented, and needless services dispensed with; landed service *ináms* are enfranchised from service, and the revenue demand credited to the local fund for the payment of village establishments. All grain fees and other uncertain and objectionable demands and sources of emoluments are being abolished, and in lieu of them a special village cess—assessed at the rate of 1 *ánná* per rupee (or one-sixteenth) of land assessment—is levied for the payment of the authorized village establishment of each village or township.

Local and Municipal Administration, including roads and communications, schools and primary education, public health and local endowments, together with the special taxation levied for any of these purposes, is provided for by the legislation of 1871 throughout the Presidency. As respects population generally, entire Districts or, where these are of unmanageable size, parts of Districts have been constituted local fund circles, each under the management of a Board of Commissioners, of which the Collector of the District is *ex officio* president, and the District engineer and medical officer, together with one or more of the covenanted and uncovenanted civil officers within the circle, are official members. With these are associated at least an equal number of the principal native inhabitants from all parts of the circle, who are appointed by Government. To the Local Fund Board so constituted is entrusted the entire management of the above-named local interests, subject to the submission of their annual budget of income and proposed expenditure for the sanction of Government, and of an annual report of the transactions of the Board for the year, at its close. The Government confides to the management of the Local Fund Boards any assignments made from the provincial fisc towards the various local interests under their care. The 21 Districts of the Presidency comprise 35 such local fund circles. The sources of income at the

disposal of these Boards are the proceeds of a special land rate, not exceeding 1 anna per rupee of the Government assessment on the land, tolls, school fees, local endowments, and other minor special and miscellaneous funds placed by Government at their disposal. The aggregate annual expenditure for 'Local' purposes in Madras Presidency, as shown in Table III., p. 156, was in 1875 £616,279.

Municipal administration of the larger towns throughout the Presidency is also provided for by Boards of Town Commissioners, in like manner presided over by the Collector and Magistrate of the District, and similarly constituted as respects official and non-official members, except that, with the sanction of Government, the latter may be elected by the ratepayers. Besides the above-named local interests, the Commissioners manage the local sanitation and hospitals, registration of births and deaths, lighting, etc., within their respective charges; and raise the subsidy (three-fourths of the entire cost) required, and maintain the police of their town. About 50 towns (the number is gradually increasing), including the city of Madras, with an aggregate population of 1,500,000, are now provided with municipal administrators. The yearly income at the disposal of the Commissioners consists of rates (not exceeding 10 per cent. of the rent value) on houses and lands within the township, a tax on all professions, callings, and arts exercised therein (the ratepayers being classified at scheduled rates), a wheel and animal tax, tolls and ferries, school and market fees, and other miscellaneous sources. The aggregate annual expenditure of Municipal Boards is about £180,000.

Under the administration of Local Fund and Municipal Boards, great impulse has been given to the development of roads and communications, schools and primary instruction, and dispensaries and hospitals throughout the country.

Revenue and Expenditure.—The finances of the Presidency require to be considered under four heads—imperial, provincial, local, and municipal. Down to the year 1871, every branch of revenue and expenditure throughout India was managed in all details by the Government of India, and practically the first head of finance only existed. Under the decentralization scheme of that year, the financial administration —under restrictive rules and severe control—of the jail, police, and educational services, together with certain branches of the medical, sanitary, and other minor services, and the printing pertaining to each, was transferred to the Government of Madras. A lump grant from imperial funds equal to the aggregate of the budget grants of the previous year (less 5 per cent.), for each of the services transferred, was assigned at the same time, on the condition that no further demand should be made on the imperial fisc for any of the transferred services; while on the

other hand, the local Government should be at liberty to apply savings or improved incomes, under the various heads of administration, to the needful expansion and improvement of the services thus become provincial. The aggregate lump grant of 1875 amounted to about £835,000, and constitutes, with improved local income and other miscellaneous revenue, the provincial fisc of the Presidency, applicable to the services transferred to local control.

In the same year (1871), legislative enactments improved the municipal resources of Town Commissioners throughout the country, and established local funds with Boards of Administration in every rural circle. Revenue and expenditure under these two last heads of finance are entirely at the disposal and under the management of local authorities, together with any subsidy from the provincial budget for the services under the management of the Boards and Commissioners. Measures of further decentralization of imperial finance as respects local services, and further utilization of local bodies in raising and expending taxation on local interests, are in contemplation.

The provincial expenditure is almost entirely met by a lump sum granted from imperial funds, and the local receipts benefit in a similar way by a subsidy from the provincial budget. Attention should be drawn to the fact, that certain important headings of expenditure, viz. army, interest, and imperial public works, are nowhere to be found in the following tables, which deal only with the civil and general administration :—

Finances of the Madras Presidency for 1875-76.

Table I. (Imperial).

Revenue.		Expenditure.	
Land revenue,	£4,545,013	Land revenue,	£444,814
Tribute, etc.,	344,643	Forests,	43,018
Forests,	42,772	Excise,	19,704
Excise,	633,901	Customs,	18,728
Customs,	307,962	Salt,	187,038
Salt,	1,353,789	Stamps,	13,673
Stamps,	501,971	Post office,	76,030
Post office,	97,225	Administration,	122,444
Law and justice,	43,379	Law and justice,	361,958
Superannuation receipts,	244,234	Ecclesiastical,	38,314
Miscellaneous,	56,275	Medical,	31,258
		Political agencies,	11,940
		Allowances and assignments,	245,064
		Superannuation,	153,940
		Loss by exchange,	30,564
		Allotments for provincial services,	835,571
		Miscellaneous,	136,860
Total,	£8,171,164	Total,	£2,770,918

TABLE II. (PROVINCIAL).

REVENUE.		EXPENDITURE.	
Imperial allotment, . . .	£835,571	Jails, ...	£105,753
Jails, ...	25,652	Registration, ...	26,656
Registration, ...	38,053	Police, ...	357,991
Police, ...	3,768	Education, ...	87,539
Education, ...	2,870	Medical, ...	55,657
Medical, ...	3,135	Printing, ...	24,636
Printing, ...	2,672	Contributions, ...	122,198
Miscellaneous, ...	23,766	Public works, ...	107,902
		Miscellaneous, ...	57,698
Total, ...	£935,487	Total, ...	£946,030

TABLE III. (LOCAL).

REVENUE.		EXPENDITURE.	
Provincial allotment, . .	£122,198	Public works, ...	£472,204
Special funds, ...	35,792	Education, ...	42,259
Land cess and tolls, . . .	376,964	Dispensaries, ...	14,180
School fees, ...	2,237	Vaccination, ...	7,895
Endowments, ...	30,275	Sanitation, ...	28,730
Public works, ...	14,696	Markets, etc., ...	20,963
Miscellaneous, ...	32,804	Miscellaneous, ...	30,048
Total, ...	£614,966	Total, ...	£616,279

TABLE IV. (MUNICIPAL).

REVENUE.		EXPENDITURE.	
Madras city, ...	£55,849	Madras city, ...	£65,091
Other Municipalities—		Other Municipalities—	
Provincial and local allotment, ...	£9,083	Public works, . . .	£35,748
Tax on houses and lands,	30,832	Education, ...	5,519
Tolls and ferries, . . .	33,971	Hospitals, etc., . . .	19,894
Profession tax, . . .	4,116	Conservancy, ...	29,512
Tax on vehicles, . . .	4,412	Lighting, ...	6,597
Tax on animals, . . .	4,965	Supervision, etc., . .	10,071
Licence fees, . . .	2,109	Miscellaneous, . . .	8,477
Miscellaneous, . . .	24,149	Total, ...	£115,818
Total, ...	£113,637		
Grand total (municipal),	£169,486	Grand total (municipal),	£180,909

The above tables show a gross revenue for the Madras Presidency, under all heads, of £9,891,103; and a total expenditure on civil administration of £4,514,136. But there are items on both sides which are matters of account, or other than actual taxation or outlay on administration.

The Madras Army is a relic of the days when India was really portioned out between the three historical Presidencies. At the present time it not only garrisons the adjoining State of Mysore, but also the Nizám's Dominions, the Central Provinces, and British Burma; while a Native infantry regiment is usually stationed at Doranda, in the Chutiá Nágpur Division of Lower Bengal, and another at Cuttack in

Orissa. The force under the orders of the Commander-in-Chief consists of 2 regiments of European cavalry, 21 batteries of European artillery, and 9 regiments of European infantry, 10 companies of Native sappers and miners, 4 regiments of Native cavalry, and 40 regiments of Native infantry. In 1876-77, the strength of the European army amounted to 1125 officers and 11,671 non-commissioned officers and men—total, 12,796; Native army, 455 officers (including European non-commissioned officers) and 33,833 men; grand total, 47,084 officers and men. The death-rate among the European troops during the ten years ending 1876 has averaged 2·023 per cent. of the total strength. The total military expenditure charged against Madras in 1876-77 was £2,845,793. The principal cantonments are Kámptí for Nágpur, Secunderábád for Haidarábád, Bangalore, Bellary, and Rangoon. St. Thomas' Mount, near Madras city, is an important station for artillery. The Amrita Mahál or breeding establishment for commissariat cattle, with herds averaging 10,000 head, is at Húnsúr in Mysore; the remount depôt for cavalry and artillery is at Usúr, in the same State. The two sanitariums are Ramandrúg, near Bellary, and Jakatála or Wellington on the Nílgiri Hills.

Police.—The system of watch and ward which was found to prevail throughout Southern India when the English rule first spread over its Provinces, was the ancient hereditary Kávili system. Under it the local races most likely to prey on their neighbours assumed the protection of the property of their less thievish countrymen, and made good all losses incurred *per contra;* the Kávilgárs levied contributions and taxes from all property to which they extended their forbearance or which they guaranteed against loss; a quota of all crops grown in the village, a rate on houses, a tax on professions (the *motarfa* tax was originally a Kávili tax), a transit duty on articles transported by the roads, etc., formed the bulk of their demands. In the larger part of the Presidency, the Kávili system was in the main a village watch and ward, but in the Southern Tamil Districts, the system had a far fuller and more oppressive organization. The heads of the Kávili races, Palígárs, Mén-Kávilgars, and the like, assumed the leadership of the Kávili organization, and levied exactions of all kinds from their helpless and timid fellow-countrymen over wide areas, proving a most lawless and oppressive grade in the system. Measures were taken, with more or less success, in the early stages of English administration, to relieve these men of responsibilities, and suppress their tyranny and knavery; their *inám* lands were resumed, their levy of contributions was interdicted, but many years passed before clandestine oppression died out. The village watch (*stala-kávil*) was everywhere retained, and constitutes the village police of the country at the present day, under whatever local appellation known. By the Regulation of 1866,

the village police was placed under the head of the village, and became practically the most useful (though somewhat dishonest) agent of the Magistrate in the police administration of the country. Since the reorganization of the general police, the village police has been brought into effective co-operation with that body in the maintenance of peace and order throughout the country. The Madras police force was organized in its present form in the year 1860. In 1875-76, it consisted of a total strength of 23,404 officers and men, being 1 man to 6 square miles of area, including waste and hill tracts, and to every 1527 of the population. The total cost was £359,311, almost entirely defrayed from provincial funds. This sum shows an average of £2, 12s. per square mile, and 2s. 7d. per head of population. Of the entire force, about 60 per cent. were able to read and write. The death-rate averaged 12 per thousand.

Criminal Statistics.—In the calendar year 1876, during which the returns began to be affected by the famine, the total number of cognizable crimes under the Penal Code reported to the police was 47,469; the total number of persons arrested was 70,667, of whom 38,431, or 54·4 per cent., were convicted. Including special and local offences, and also the returns of non-cognizable crime, the grand total of persons convicted of an offence of one sort or another amounted to 84,751, being at the rate of 1 to every 373 of the population. The influence of famine on crime may be gathered from the statistics for *dakáiti* or gang-robbery. In 1876, cases of *dakáiti* numbered 980, being nearly five times as many as in the preceding year. In the District of Bellary the number rose from 15 to 159, and in Cuddapah from 10 to 134.

Jails.—There are altogether 36 jails in the Presidency, including six central jails, the European prison, the penitentiary, and the debtors' prison at Madras. In the calendar year 1876, the total number of prisoners passing through these jails was 41,704, of whom about one-quarter may be set down to the results of the famine. The daily average number of prisoners was 10,926·25, of whom only 443·84 were women. These figures show 1 person in jail to every 2900 of the total population, and 1 woman to every 35,122 of the female population. But the returns of 1876 were abnormally high owing to the famine. The total cost under all items amounted to £84,924, or an average of £7, 15s. 6d. per head. The financial result of jail manufactures, after making allowance for the value of goods supplied to Government, showed a net profit of £14,065, or an average of £1, 14s. per manufacturing prisoner. The total number of deaths in jail was 464, being at the rate of 42·4 per thousand. There are 303 subsidiary jails or lock-ups in the Presidency, with an average daily population in 1876 of 2197·41.

Education.—During the early days of British rule, education was left

to the voluntary activity of the missionaries and the indigenous village schoolmasters. In 1852-53, the total amount expended by Government on this account was only £4556. The present system dates from 1855, in which year the Madras University was remodelled, a staff of local inspectors was appointed, the system of grants-in-aid was organized, and several private institutions were brought under the Educational Department. The subsequent reform of 1871 has led to the establishment of numerous elementary schools, supported by local taxation. In 1876-77, the total number of schools of all kinds in the Presidency was 10,139, attended by 275,878 pupils, showing 1 school to 13 square miles (including hill tracts), and 9 pupils to every thousand of the population. In the same year, the total expenditure was £283,716, of which £127,637 was contributed by Government, £39,704 by Local Fund Boards, £6772 by municipalities, £103,399 by private agencies, and £6204 by endowments. During the ten years ending 1877, a total of 16,192 candidates attempted the entrance examination of the Madras University, of whom 5912 passed; 1386 passed the first arts examination, 458 graduated B.A., and 14 M.A. with honours, 91 passed in law, 18 in medicine, and 12 in civil engineering. Out of 1250 students who matriculated in 1876-77, 744 were Bráhmans, 329 Hindus of other castes, 19 Muhammadans, 85 native Christians, 41 Eurasians, and 32 Europeans. The chief institutions teaching up to the B.A. standard are —the Presidency College and the Provincial College of Combaconum, both under Government management; the Central Institution of the Free Church of Scotland; the Doveton Protestant College; and the S.P.G. High School at Tanjore. Among special institutions the following deserve mention:—The law class at the Presidency College; the Medical College; the Civil Engineering College; the School of Ordnance Artificers; and the School of Arts (1850). The male branch of the military orphanages of Madras has recently been removed to the Nílgiri Hills, where admirable buildings have been provided, mainly at the cost of Government, for about 330 boys and 60 girls. A small military orphanage established at Utakamuṇd about 1858, in memory of the late Sir Henry Lawrence, has been amalgamated with the transferred institution; and the whole has been placed on the same footing as Lawrence asylums throughout India as respects rules of management and responsibility of government, and is now called the Lawrence Asylum. The female branch of the Military Asylum is still at Madras. A School of Agriculture, with experimental farm, has been established at Saidapet, near Madras, and a scheme for the extension of agricultural instruction throughout the Province is under contemplation. Female education generally was represented, in 1876-77, by a total of 28,151 girls, of whom 6597 were found in the single District of Tinnevelli, and 5098 in Madras city. Primary instruction is in the main entrusted by Government,

under strict inspection, but very moderate subsidy, to the management of Local Fund and Municipal Boards and private enterprise. All expansion must be looked for from these authorities. The expenditure of Government is devoted to direction and inspection, and the encouragement of higher and middle education, and in this respect has been eminently successful. It has been calculated that about one million sterling had been expended by Government on higher education within the Presidency between 1853 and 1875. No million sterling ever spent in India has produced higher and more lasting results.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Madras varies in the different parts of the Presidency, being determined by the very diverse geographical conditions. The Nílgiri Hills enjoy the climate of the temperate zone, with a moderate rainfall, and a thermometer rarely exceeding 80° F., and sometimes falling to freezing-point. In 1876, the mean temperature in the shade at the sanitarium of Wellington was 61·2° F. On the Malabar coast, the south-west monsoon brings an excessive rainfall, reaching 150 inches in the year at certain spots. The rain-clouds hanging on the slope of the Western Gháts sometimes obscure the sun for month after month. Along the eastern coast and on the central tablelands, the rainfall is comparatively low, but the heat of the summer months is excessive. At Masulipatam, the thermometer frequently rises to above 110° F. in the shade, and to 170° in the sun. Observations extending over a period of sixty-three years give an average of 48·9 inches of rain in the year at Madras city; but this is considerably above the mean of the east coast generally. At Bellary the average annual rainfall does not exceed 22 inches, of which 16 inches are brought by the south-west monsoon across the Gháts. The whole coast of the Bay of Bengal is liable to disastrous cyclones, which not only wreck the shipping in the roads, but have repeatedly overwhelmed the low-lying ports.

The most prevalent diseases are fevers, diarrhœa, dysentery and other bowel complaints, cholera, and small-pox. It is invariably found that the cold season is most fatal to natives. As a rule, mortality begins to decline with the setting in of the hot, dry season, rises again with the moisture of the south-west monsoon, and reaches its maximum in the cold-weather months of November, December, and January. Registration of births and deaths has been in force throughout the Presidency since 1866. The returns cannot be accepted as satisfactory, especially as regards births; but they show signs of improvement. In 1876, the total number of births registered was 325,531 males and 306,582 females—total, 632,113, or at the rate of 21·6 per thousand. In municipal towns only, where registration is less imperfect, the birth-rate was 27·6 per thousand. In the same year, the total number of deaths registered was 693,654, or at the rate of 23·3 per thousand. In the 74

towns with a population exceeding 10,000, the death-rate rose to 30·9 per thousand. Of the total number of deaths, 231,181 were assigned to fevers, 148,322 to cholera, 38,285 to bowel complaints, and 23,478 to small-pox, leaving 253,388 for all other causes.

In 1876-77, there were altogether 156 hospitals and dispensaries in connection with the Government, which afforded relief to 37,835 in-door and 729,616 out-door patients—total, 767,451. The death-rate among in-patients was 129·6 per thousand. The principal diseases treated were ague, fevers, constipation, conjunctivitis, ascaris lumbricoides, dyspepsia, and rheumatism. The expenditure was £65,106—to which Government contributed £27,362, municipal and local funds £30,201, European subscriptions £1664, Native subscriptions £1507. There are 3 lunatic asylums—at Madras city, Vizagapatam, and Calicut—with a total of 516 inmates in 1876-77, of whom 125 were criminal lunatics. The death-rate was 86·3 per thousand. The total expenditure was £9190. Out of an aggregate of 121 cases traced to physical causes, 45 were due to the excessive use of narcotics or spirits, and 39 to congenital or hereditary causes. The former class of cases are usually curable under enforced abstinence. Vaccination is now carried out as a branch of the sanitary department. In 1876-77, the total number of operations performed was 483,192, of which 94 per cent. were successful. Only 52,505 children under one year old were operated upon, as the people defer the time, if possible, until their children can run alone. The total cost was £13,494, or at the rate of 7½d. per case. The greater portion of the expenditure is provided from local and municipal funds, from which source almost all the hospitals and dispensaries beyond the precincts of the city of Madras are provided and maintained, and their numbers yearly added to.

Madras City.—Capital of the Madras Presidency, situated in lat. 13° 4′ 6″ N., long. 80° 17′ 22″ E. These are the bearings of the Madras Observatory; but the town, with its suburbs, extends 8 miles along the coast, and runs 3½ miles inland, covering an area of about 27 square miles. According to the Census of 1871, Madras contained 397,552 inhabitants, living in 51,741 houses.

History.—The derivation of the name is doubtful. *Mandaráj*, or *Mandala Ráj*, both words implying 'Government,' and *Madrissa*, a Muhammadan school, have been suggested as the etymology; Dr. Burnell favours the latter. The native name is Chennapatnam or the city of Chennappa, the brother of the local chief or *naik* at the time of its foundation. The name Madraspatnam seems to have been in use almost from the same date. In March 1639, Mr. Francis Day, Chief of the Settlement at Armagon, obtained from the representative of the waning power of Vijáyanagar, Srí Ranga Rayal, Rájá of Chandragiri, a grant of the site of land on which Madras now stands. A factory, with

some slight fortifications, was at once constructed; and, induced by favourable terms, a gradually increasing number of natives settled round the building. In 1653, Madras, which had previously been subordinate to the Chief of the Settlement of Bantam in Java, was raised to the rank of an independent Presidency. In 1702, Dáúd Khán, Aurangzeb's general, blockaded the town for a few weeks; and in 1741, the Marhattás attacked the place, also unsuccessfully. The fort was extended and strengthened in 1743, and by this time the city had already become the largest in Southern India. As early as 1690, some attempt had been made to protect Black Town by a mud wall. In 1702, the necessity of improving this was brought home to the people by the advance of Dáúd Khán; and a tax was raised for the purpose. From time to time, when danger threatened, this tax was repeated, but in periods of peace it was found difficult to draw contributions from the people; indeed, when in 1684 it was attempted for the fort defences, a riot ensued. The result of these imposts was a masonry wall, or 'bound hedge,' round the north and west sides of the town, with eleven bastions. Many traces of the wall still exist, and some of the bastions have been converted into police *thánás*. A curious monument of this defence is preserved in the name of the street lying within the line of the west wall, which is popularly known as 'Wall-tax Road' to this day. In 1746, Labourdonnais bombarded and captured the fort. The Settlement was restored to the English two years later by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, but the Government of the Presidency did not return to Madras till 1752. In 1758, the French under Lally occupied the Black Town and invested the fort. The siege, which has been vividly described by Orme, was conducted on both sides with great skill and vigour. After two months, the arrival of a British fleet relieved the garrison, and the besiegers retired with some precipitation. With the exception of the threatening approach of Haidar Alí's horsemen in 1769, and again in 1780, Madras has since the French siege been free from external attack. The town of Saint Thomé, now an integral part of Madras city, was founded and fortified by the Portuguese in 1504, and was held by the French from 1672 to 1674. Sacked by Zulfikár Khán in 1698, it was occupied in 1749 by the English, who expelled the French priests as political emissaries.

Appearance.—Although at first sight the city presents a disappointing appearance, and possesses not a single handsome street, it has several edifices of high architectural pretensions, and many spots of historical interest. Seen from the roadstead, the fort, a row of merchants' offices, a few spires and public buildings, are all that strike the eye. The site is so low that it is difficult to realize that behind the first line of buildings lies one of the largest cities in Asia. Roughly speaking, it consists of (1) Black Town, an ill-built, densely populated block,

about a mile square, within the old city wall, with more or less crowded suburbs stretching 3 miles north of the Cooum river. This is the business part of the town, and contains the banks, customs house, High Court, and all the mercantile offices. The last, for the most part handsome structures, lie along the beach. On the sea face of Black Town are the pier, and the new harbour, now (1878) in course of construction. Immediately south of Black Town there is (2) an open space with a sea frontage of about two miles, and a depth of three-quarters of a mile, which contains the fort, esplanade, brigade parade ground ('the Island'), Government House, and several handsome public buildings on the sea face. (3) West and south of this lung of the city, comes a series of crowded quarters known by various native names — Chintadrapet, Tiruvaleswarampet, Pudupák, Royapet, Kistnampet, and Mylapur, which bend to the sea again at the old town of Saint Thomé. (4) To the west of Black Town are the quarters of Veperi and Pudupet, chiefly inhabited by Eurasians; and the suburbs of Egmore, Nangambákam, and Perambúr, adorned with handsome European mansions, and their spacious 'compounds' or parks. (5) South-west and south lie the European quarters of Tanampet and aristocratic Adyar. The city is thus spread over a large area; and it is only after some residence that one realizes the stately semi-suburban life which distinguishes it from the more concentrated social activity of Calcutta. In short, a very large proportion of the tract of country comprised within the municipal limits of the city of Madras—covering as it does an area of 27 square miles, with 23 villages—consists of the poor rural district, more or less under cultivation, which surrounds the fort and the native town and suburban villages now incorporated within its limits. This fact explains the recurring difficulties of municipal administration, and the chronic inadequacy of its finances for the services to be met over so large an area. The moderate resources furnished by a poor and partly rural population have to be scattered over an area manifold larger than that included under the management of the wealthy corporations of Calcutta and Bombay, with the inevitable result of apparent shortcoming in many details. Efforts have been made by recent legislation (1878) to improve the municipal resources.

The main thoroughfare of the town is the Mount Road, opened in 1795, which leads from Fort St. George to St. Thomas' Mount. This is a fine street and avenue, but the houses along it for the two first miles are, with a few exceptions, very disappointing. The Cathedral Road, crossing it at right angles, and the Mowbray Road, are also wide and well laid out; the latter possessing a magnificent avenue of banian trees. The Cooum river falls into the sea within municipal limits. Its course is short, and, except during the north-east rains, the volume of water it carries is insufficient to keep open the

discharge into the sea. A backwater is thus formed round 'the Island,' and skirting the fort and Government House grounds, whose stagnant condition, aided by the drainage of one or two suburban villages on its banks, has proved at times a serious drawback to the sanitary condition and amenity of the immediate neighbourhood. With rare exceptions, the bar of sand at the mouth of the river is breached by the early floods of the north-east monsoon, and open communication with the sea continues for some months. The Cooum is in communication with the Pulicat backwater, the Cochrane Canal, and with the Adyar river and Southern Canal system, by the junction canal through Saint Thomé. A considerable area is kept open to the west and north by several large tanks, and the two parks and the horticultural gardens give additional breathing space. The people's park, which contains a small zoological collection, is the principal recreation ground of the city.

Among the buildings most deserving of notice for their architectural features, are the Cathedral, Scotch Kirk, Government House, Patcheappah's Hall, Senate House, Chepák Palace (Revenue Board), College, and Central Railway Station. The two churches were built in 1816 and 1818 by Major de Haviland. Both are, in their general outline, Ionic; and in both, the polished Madras *chunam* work, which has very much the effect of marble, is to be seen in great perfection. Mr. Chisholm, the Government architect, says: 'Until quite recently, the material for building consisted of inferior brick plastered, the plaster being moulded to imitate any or every kind of European detail. A trabeated form of Italian, with wooden architraves, was the favourite style. The only two buildings of note, constructed during this "plaster period," are the Scotch Kirk and Patcheappah's Hall; the former on account of its boldness of conception and constructive truthfulness, and the latter for its beauty and purity of design. Since 1864, when stone from Cuddapah and Sholingarh was introduced for building purposes, local architecture has been slowly working towards an adaptation of the Hindu Saracenic. The new Senate House, with the exception of the Byzantine terminations, is wholly in that style.' The Chepák Palace, formerly the residence of the Nawáb of Arcot, and now the office of the Board of Revenue, in its restored appearance, is a striking specimen of the school referred to. These two buildings and the College have all been erected in the last ten years. The principal public statutes are those of Sir Thomas Munro, Lord Cornwallis, and General Neill.

Fort St. George, commenced in March 1639, by Mr. Francis Day, originally consisted of a factory and other buildings surrounded by a wall, with four slight bastions and batteries, the whole being about 400 yards long by 100 deep. In 1643, it had cost about £3500, and was garrisoned by 100 men, the number being reduced a few years later to 26. Between 1670 and 1680, some effort was made to improve and

strengthen the position—a necessity forced on the Company by the successive retirement and encroachment of the sea, by the presence of the French at Saint Thomé, and by the threatening advance of Sivají. St. Mary's, the first English church in India, was commenced in 1678, and finished in 1680. In 1702, the fort bore its first attack, when Dáúd Khán blockaded it for three months. In 1723, the Mint was built within its walls; and in 1740, Mr. Smith submitted a scheme for making the fort defensible, and for doubling its enclosed area. This was partially carried out, when Labourdonnais sat down before the place, and took it after a short bombardment (1746). When, three years later, the English re-entered the fort, they found it greatly improved, the *glacis* to the north had been made, and the bastions and batteries enlarged. Mr. Robins was now deputed to complete the French work; he adopted Mr. Smith's plans, and for two years 4000 labourers were continuously employed. Mr. Robins formed the *glacis* to the west, deepened the ditch, enlarged the old bastions, formed four new ones to the west, to include the new ground taken up on that side, and added new batteries. So that in 1758, when the French returned under Lally, the place, although far from perfect, was fit for Pigott and Lawrence to defend. Immediately after the siege, works were continued under Mr. Call and Colonel Ross, till, in 1787, the fort was completed, very much as it now stands. Although suitable for the purpose for which it was originally designed, it is not tenable against modern artillery, and its walls in many places are in disrepair. Within it are nearly all the principal Government offices—the Secretariat and Council Chamber, the military headquarters, arsenal, and barracks. The arsenal contains many curious trophies of the wars in which the Madras army has been engaged. In St. Mary's Church are buried the missionary Schwartz, Sir Thomas Munro, Sir Henry Ward, and Lord Hobart.

As the seat of the Madras Government, and the headquarters of the Madras army, nearly all the most important offices of the Presidency, and the headquarters of every department, are located in Madras. Apart from the headquarters staff of the Madras army, that of the Central Division is also stationed here, with a garrison of 1 European and 3 Native infantry regiments, 1 battery of artillery, and the body-guard of the Governor (100 sabres). At St. Thomas' Mount are 3 batteries of artillery and a detachment of Native infantry. Including these, the garrison of Madras is about 3500 strong, of whom 1200 are Europeans.

Population.—The old estimates of the population of Madras were curiously upset by the results of the Census of 1871. In 1763, it was calculated at nearly a million, and subsequently the official estimate fell to 750,000. An enumeration in 1822 returned 470,000; another in

1866, 450,000. The Census of 1871, the only one upon which any reliance can be placed, gave a total of 397,552 persons. The number of houses was 51,741, of which 10 per cent. were tiled. The area of the town being taken at 27 square miles, this gives an average of 14,724 persons and 1916 houses per square mile. But as about 3½ square miles consist of parks, esplanades, etc., these figures understate the actual density of population, which varies from 98,000 per square mile in the second division, to 2509 in the fourth. The proportion of males to females is about 104·2 to 100. As regards religious distinctions, Dr. Cornish writes:—'The Hindu population of Madras (inclusive of the lower castes, whose claim to be considered Hindus at all is doubtful) consists of 330,052 individuals; of these, 161,618 are males and 168,434 females. The next great section of the community are the Musalmáns, and their numbers, as ascertained by the Census, are 50,964, the numbers of their sexes being 24,570 males and 26,394 females. Since 1863, if the returns of that year are to be trusted, the Muhammadan population has decreased by about 21 per cent. The mixed class of Eurasians is composed of 12,013 persons, of whom 5810 are males and 6203 females. The number of Europeans entered in the Census schedules is 3613, viz. 2270 males and 1343 females.'

Revenue.—The quit-rents of Madras were originally collected by the *Conicopollies*, and paid directly to the general treasury. Later, when dues were charged on betel, tobacco, and other commodities at the *chaukis* in the 'Bound Hedge,' an officer, called the 'Land Customer,' was appointed to superintend collection of these dues, as well as of the quit-rents, spirit revenue, and numerous other charges, known by the generic name of *motarfa*. In 1798, the 'home farms' (certain villages of the *jágír*) were added to the charge of this officer, who shortly afterwards was designated Collector of Madras. In 1860, the public revenue of Madras city (excepting sea customs) was transferred to Chengalpat (then called Madras) District. This has, since 1870, been altered, and all the Government revenues, including sea customs, within the municipal limits are now entrusted to the Collector of Madras.

Municipal.—The earliest measure of municipal government consisted of the appointment of watchmen and the imposition of a scavenger cess, in 1678. At various periods, small cesses on trades and commodities appear to have been levied for town purposes, but whether at any time the quit-rents were directly devoted to similar objects is not clear. The '*Conicopollies*' Fund' was assigned in 1735 for the maintenance of bridges and roads, and a little later this was augmented by the profits on public lotteries. From 1688 the Mayor and Corporation had control of municipal work and funds. In 1793, an Act allowing the imposition of municipal taxes was passed; and in 1798, a committee

was appointed for the better administration of the town. Rules for markets and public conveyances, and a provision tariff, were drawn up by this body, and at the same time a portion of the excise revenue was devoted to municipal purposes. No trace of further municipal legislation is to be found till 1841; but since that date, there have been numerous enactments on the subject. Municipal Acts were passed in 1856, 1865, 1867, 1871, and 1878. In 1867, the principle of representation was first asserted. At present, the annual income of the town is about £53,000, or an incidence of 2s. 8d. per head of the population—not an excessive charge, when it is considered that this has to provide for the sanitation of 400,000 inhabitants spread over 27 square miles, to maintain and light some 256 miles of road, to furnish pure drinking water, to contribute to schools and hospitals, and to provide a system of vaccination, etc. The Commission consists (1877-78) of a paid president (with other officers), and 32 honorary commissioners nominated by the Governor-in-Council. Its revenue is derived from the following sources:—Tax on carriages and animals, about £4000; (2) tax on professions, etc., £9000; (3) cart fees, £1300; (4) tolls, £4200; (5) liquor licences, £1000; (6) house and land rate, £26,000; (7) miscellaneous receipts, £7500. The expenditure is in the following proportions:—Establishment, £10,000; sanitation, £14,000; roads, £10,000; lighting, £2000; water supply, £2000; medical, £4000; education, £1500; debt, £8500; and miscellaneous, £1000. Notwithstanding the difficulties of narrow means, the Commission has given the city a pure water supply at a cost of about £150,000. To effect this work, two reservoirs of native construction were enlarged, so as to contain 130 millions of cubic yards; and their supply was improved by constructing an anicut or weir across the Cortelliar river, with a supply channel to the upper part of the two reservoirs, and a connecting channel between them. The upper reservoir is called the Cholávaram tank. Its area is 1543 acres; and the depth of water at the lowest sluice is 20 feet. The other reservoir is the Red Hills tank, with an area of 4869 acres, and a maximum depth of 25 feet. The water is conveyed to Madras in an open high level channel, 7 miles long, with strainers at both ends. This channel terminates with a masonry shaft, from which the water is delivered at a level of 29½ feet above mean sea level into a distributing system of cast-iron pipes. The pressure is sufficient to raise the water 8 or 10 feet above ground level in all parts of the town. The annual consumption is about 12,000,000 cubic yards. In addition to supplying the city of Madras with water, the Red Hills tank is largely drawn upon for irrigation. The city still requires, foremost among many wants, an effective system of drainage, and the complete regeneration of the river Cooum.

Port.—Notwithstanding its exposed situation, Madras ranks third

among the ports in India, in respect of the number and tonnage of vessels calling, and the value of its imports and exports. The average for the last ten years has been 1065 ships, of 485,006 tons. In 1876-77, the famine increased the number to 1685 ships, of 871,774 tons; exports, £3,405,616 — imports, £7,581,133. The port trades with every part of the world, exporting coffee, cotton, grain, hides, indigo, oil-seeds, dyestuffs, sugar, and horns; and importing piece-goods, iron and other metals, and all kinds of European manufactures. It is regulated under Act XII. of 1875, and administered by a master attendant, with a deputy and two assistants. At present, the landing and shipping of goods is effected partly by lighters to the pier-head, and partly by the old *masula* boats. There are 81 of the former and 342 of the latter on the register. The pier, which is 1100 feet long by 40 feet wide, was commenced in 1859 and completed in 1862 at a cost of £110,000; and although but a poor substitute for a harbour, it was found very useful during the famine of 1877-78, as many as 12,000 bags of rice having been landed there in a single day. It has been twice breached by vessels drifting through it, and repaired at a cost of £40,000. An enclosed harbour is now (1878) in course of construction. This, when complete, will consist of two projecting masonry piers, crossed by similar piers parallel to the shore. In the cross piers an opening of 410 feet will be left. The space enclosed will be about 200 acres, and will accommodate (according to the mode of mooring) from 13 to 40 ships of large draught, besides small vessels. The estimated expenditure is £565,000, and the work should be completed in 1881. The lighthouse, a Doric column 125 feet high, contains a first-class white flashing catadioptric light. It was erected in 1844, and is visible from a ship's deck 15 miles at sea.

The roadstead of Madras, like the whole line of the western coast, is liable to be swept by hurricanes of irresistible fury, which occur at irregular intervals of years, generally at the beginning of the monsoons in May and October. The first recorded cyclone was in October 1746, a few weeks after the fort had surrendered to Labourdonnais. A French fleet then lay at anchor in the roads. Five large ships foundered, with 1200 men on board; and scarcely a single vessel escaped with its masts standing. Perhaps the most destructive of these storms occurred in May 1872. On this occasion the registered wind pressure reached a maximum of 53 lbs. to the square foot. The shipping in the roads did not receive sufficient warning to allow them to slip their cables and put to sea. In the space of a few hours, 9 English vessels, with an aggregate tonnage of 6700 tons, and 20 native craft, were driven ashore. Fortunately day broke when the calamity was at its height; and the rocket apparatus, skilfully used, saved the lives of all except 19 men. In May 1874, another cyclone broke on the

Madras coast, but the ships were warned in time to put to sea and gain an offing. The most recent of these periodical hurricanes was in May 1877. A carefully prepared code for the guidance of all Departments on the occurrence of a hurricane has been sanctioned by Government.

Industries.—The trade of the town does not depend on any special local manufactures or produce. Such industries as once flourished—weaving, for instance—have decayed, and no others have grown up to replace them. As elsewhere in India, spinning companies have recently been formed, but what effect they are likely to exercise on local trade remains to be seen. With the exception of banks, and enterprises connected with the preparation of produce for export, *e.g.* cotton-pressing and coffee-cleaning, joint stock undertakings have not prospered.

Communications.—As the capital of Southern India, Madras is the centre on which all the great military roads converge. From the three principal of these (No. I. running west, No. VI. north to Calcutta, No. VIII. south to Cape Comorin) branch all the Great Trunk roads, which, with their massive bridges and smooth hard wheel-ways, are among the greatest monuments of English rule. Madras is also the terminal station of two lines of railway, the Madras line and the Madras and Tanjore section of the South Indian Railway. The first, striking across the peninsula, links it with the west coast at two points nearly 600 miles apart—Bombay and Beypur (Bepur)—and, by branches, with Haidarábád, Bangalore, the Nílgiris, and the Ceded Districts; the second brings the capital within easy access of all the southern Districts. The original terminus of the Madras line at Royapuram, a northern suburb of the city, was opened for traffic in 1856. It has been used for offices and stores since the present central station was opened, in 1873. Besides the two stations mentioned, there is a goods station at the Salt Kotárs, and a suburban passenger station at Perambúr. The Madras Porto-Novo Railway was opened in 1876.

The Buckingham Canal, which passes through an outlying part of the city, connects South Arcot District with Nellore and the Krishna and Godávari system of canal navigation. This long delayed project was undertaken as a famine work.

Education, etc.—According to the Census of 1871, over 20 per cent. of the population could read and write. Connected with the Educational Department, there are within the city 369 schools, teaching 22,468 pupils; of these, 63 are girls' schools, with 4632 pupils. The only secular arts college in Madras is the Presidency College, which has a staff consisting of a principal, 6 professors, and 1 assistant professor. There is also a law class under a professor, and a school department with 6 English masters, besides *munshis*, who teach Sanskrit, Tamil, Telugu, Kanarese, Malayálam, Persian, and Hindustáni. A well-equipped laboratory has been recently added to the institution. Of the

higher-class schools, the Doveton Medical and Engineering Colleges, the Free Church Institution, and Patcheappah's High School are the most noteworthy. Special institutions include two Normal Schools, a School of Arts, and Industrial School for artificers.

In 1875-76, the total number of books published at Madras was 781, of which 140 were original works, and 125 were in English. Exclusive of the Government and Lawrence Asylum presses, there were 22 English and 54 Native presses; and, exclusive of periodicals, 6 English and 12 Native newspapers published.

There are 3 bishops (1 English and 2 Roman Catholic); 15 Anglican churches, including the Cathedral; 2 Roman Catholic cathedrals, and 13 churches; 3 Scotch churches and 8 dissenting chapels, besides numerous meeting-houses and mission school-rooms used for prayer. There are also 10 Christian cemeteries. The first English church, St. Mary's, in the fort, built in 1680, has already been referred to. The Cathedral has a fine organ, a good choir, and a peal of bells. There are many missionary societies, including the London, the Church, Wesleyan, Lutheran, American, 2 Scotch, and a Baptist Mission; Bible, Gospel, Christian Knowledge, and other Book Societies. In connection with the first two societies, 3 additional bishops have recently been appointed—2 in Tinnevelli, and 1 in Travancore.

Judicial.—In Old Madras, all criminal and civil disputes were finally referable to the Council; but from the commencement of its history, the 'Justices of the Choultry,' an unpaid commission, consisting partly of natives, had jurisdiction in larcenies, minor misdemeanours, and petty civil causes, and also controlled the police. More serious cases were reserved for the decision of the Chief and Council. In 1688, the Mayor's Court was created with jurisdiction in civil and criminal cases. It held sessions for cases remitted by the Justices, and appeals went to the Admiralty Court created in 1684. In 1726, the powers of the Mayor's Court were extended by Royal Charter, a Small Cause Court was created, and for a few years was presided over by the Sheriff. In 1798, the Mayor's Sessions were replaced by a Recorder, and in 1801 by the Supreme Court. In the following year, the *Sadr* and *Faujdárí* Court was established by Regulation as the chief court for all cases beyond the limits of the original jurisdiction of the Supreme Court. In 1862, the Supreme and *Sadr* Courts were merged in the new High Court, created by Royal Charter, which possesses appellate jurisdiction, and also original jurisdiction, both civil and criminal, throughout the Presidency. A final appeal in important civil causes lies to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. The Small Cause Court of four Judges, and the four police magistrates, are the ordinary courts of first instance for civil and criminal business.

Police.—When the whole territory lay within the 'Bound Hedge,' the peace of the city was confided, after the fashion of the villages of the country, to a hereditary watchman paid by land grants, thereafter pertaining to the office. Peddu Náyak, the first of these *taliáris*, has left his name to a large quarter of the town, built on his *inám* lands. In 1640, he had to find 20 peons for police work; in 1659, the number was raised to 50. In 1686, this Náyak or 'Madras Paligár,' as he is styled in some old papers, received a *kaul* conferring increased emoluments, including the right to tithes upon the produce of certain trades, and a watch tax on houses, called the 'revenues from the sea-gate, choultry, and *bázár*,' in consideration whereof he had to furnish an increased force, as well as to provide escorts for officials, and to execute the processes of the justices. Except a mention of Peddu Náyak riding at the head of his peons at the ceremony of installing the Mayor in 1727, the history of the city police for 100 years is not traceable. In 1798, when a committee assembled to devise measures of municipal reform, Mr. Tolton sat, *ex officio*, as secretary to the police committee. It is therefore probable that the *paligár* had been for some time under administrative control. His office was abolished in 1806, and a regular town police, which, however, retained most of the methods and persons of the old system, was formed. This, in 1868, gave place to a remodelled force on the same lines as the provincial constabulary. The present police force consists of a commissioner, two deputies, and about 1000 subordinate officers and constables, including mounted, jail, and marine police.

Institutions.—Besides those already mentioned, the following institutions deserve notice:—The Observatory, the Museum, the Literary Society's Library, the Friend-in-Need Society, the Monegar Choultry, and the hospitals. The Observatory, from whose meridian all India takes its time, was established in 1792, Mr. Goldingham being the first astronomer. It originated in a small private observatory started in 1787 by Mr. W. Petrie, a scientific member of Council. It now contains a fine collection of instruments, including a large new equatorial, and a very efficient transit circle. Besides the regular meridional observations, the attention to casual phenomena, and the maintenance of a meteorological register, this Observatory has conducted much special work of permanent value in astronomical annals. The Literary Society and Auxiliary of the Royal Asiatic Society possesses a library of over 17,000 volumes. In 1851, the Society presented its collection of geological specimens to Government, which formed the nucleus of what is now known as the Government Central Museum. The natural history section embraces an extensive collection of birds, reptiles, fish, shells, and insects; besides a large herbarium and numerous mineralogical and geological specimens. There is also

a very interesting collection of gold, silver, and copper coins, besides numerous specimens illustrating the natural resources and manufactures of British India, and the manners, customs, and antiquities of the country. Attached to the museum is a reading-room and general library, and also a scientific library devoted to natural history. Altogether, there are upwards of 7000 volumes, besides a very extensive collection of patent office publications. The Friend-in-Need Society, supported by voluntary subscription, supplemented by a Government grant, discharges, for destitute Europeans and Eurasians, the functions of a poor-rate. It was founded in 1807, and has ever since been a useful and well-supported institution, finding work for those able to do it, and gratuitous relief for the old and infirm. The Monegar Choultry is one of the oldest as well as one of the most creditable of Madras institutions. Founded in 1808, it has been maintained by private subscription and Government grants in a state of great efficiency. It affords shelter, food, and clothing to the native poor and infirm, and contains many wards, named after their founders. It has at present accommodation for 250 inmates, and beds for 111 in its infirmary, besides affording out-door relief in 10,000 cases annually. The general hospital has wards containing 240 beds, exclusive of 80 beds in the annexes for contagious cases, and possesses all the appliances and accommodation of a first-class hospital. Its staff consists of a physician and 2 surgeons (one of whom is resident), 5 medical subordinates, a matron, 13 nurses, and about 40 attendants. Private rooms are provided for invalids who can afford to pay. A lying-in hospital, a hospital for women and children, and several dispensaries, supplement the usefulness of the larger institution.

Climate, etc.—Madras is not ordinarily an unhealthy town, either for natives or Europeans. Its sea-breeze and dry soil appear to more than compensate for the lowness of the site. According to Dr. Cornish, the Sanitary Commissioner, 'its climate is, on the whole, favourable to the health of the native inhabitants. The temperature is high all the year round, but there are fewer sudden alternations of heat and cold than in most places in India. The mean temperature in the shade ranges between 74° and 87° F.; the extremes being 67° in January, and 93° in June. The death-rate averages 33 per thousand per annum. It usually increases during the cold and rainy seasons, and is at its minimum during the dry hot months of April, May, and June. The population is liable to periodical visitations of cholera and small-pox. Elephantiasis and leprosy are endemic diseases on the coast-line; the former is generally seen in the form known as "Cochin" or "elephant leg." The land rises slightly as the distance from the sea increases, but in no part of the municipal limits is the elevation more than 24 feet above the sea, while in many thickly populated neighbourhoods the

levels are so low as to offer serious obstacles to drainage. The average rainfall over the town area is nearly 48 inches in the year. The chief outlets for the discharge of excessive rainfall are the Cooum river, the main drain of Black Town, and two minor channels between the Cooum and Saint Thomé. The heaviest rainfall usually occurs during the north-east monsoon, as much as 18 inches having been known to fall within twenty-four hours. The locality of the town is liable to prolonged periods of drought, as well as to heavy floods.'

Madura (*Mad'hurá*).—A British District in the south of the Madras Presidency, lying between 9° 4′ and 10° 44′ N. lat., and between 77° 14′ and 79° 20′ E. long. The total area is given as 9502 square miles; the total population, according to the Census of 1871, amounts to 2,266,615 persons. Madura is bounded north by the Districts of Coimbatore, Trichinopoli, and Tanjore; east and south-east by the sea; south-west by Tinnevelli District; and west by the State of Travancore. The administrative headquarters are at the Town of Madura.

Physical Aspect.—Broadly speaking, Madura District consists of a section of the plain stretching from the mountains east to the sea, coinciding with the drainage basin of the Váiga river. Along its south-western border the District abuts on the range of the Western Gháts, here known as the Travancore Hills, which separate South-west Madura from the native State of that name; the boundary line then crosses the eastern end of the highland plateau, which, lying south of the Palghát gap, comprises the continuation of the Western Gháts and Agamalla Hills (Malabar and Cochin) and the Animalái (Coimbatore) and Palni ranges, and includes the latter within the District of Madura. Trichinopoli and Tinnevelli Districts form the northern and southern boundaries; and the Palk Straits on the north, and the Gulf of Manaar on the south of the Rámeswaram Reef or Adam's Bridge, separate the island of Ceylon from the mainland. The general aspect of the District is that of a level plain, sloping gradually to the south-east, as indicated by the channel of the Váiga river. This plain, however, is broken in the west by the outlying spurs of the Gháts, and by a few isolated hills and masses of rock scattered over the country. The most important spur of the Gháts is that known to Europeans as the Palni Hills, but called by the natives Varáha or 'Pig Mountains.' The Palnis project east-north-east across the District for a total distance of about 54 miles. Their highest peaks attain an elevation of more than 8000 feet above sea level; and they enclose a plateau about 100 square miles in area, with an average height of 7000 feet. On this plateau, a sanitarium for Europeans has recently been established at Kodaikánal, and the business of coffee-planting is rapidly extending. Farther east, a confused group of hills, known as the Sirumalais, clusters round the village of Nattam, the largest of which reaches a height of nearly 4000 feet. A sanitarium was planted

here, too, in early times, but it has been abandoned on account of the malignant fever which infects this entire group. Among isolated rocks may be mentioned the precipitous fortress of Dindigal, and the 'Elephant Rock,' the 'Cow Hill,' and the sacred Skandamalia—all three in the immediate neighbourhood of Maḍura town. The principal river is the VAIGA, which flows in a south-easterly direction from the mountains to the sea, passing by the town of Madura, and dividing the District into two almost equal portions. Its chief tributaries are the Suruli, Varáhanadi, and Vattilla-gundu. The Gundu and Varshalái are the only other rivers worthy of name. All these streams (the Váiga included) are rather drainage channels than permanent rivers. In seasons of flood, when swollen by rains on the hills, they come down in impetuous torrents, filling their sandy beds from bank to bank. But for the rest of the year they become mere trickling streams, whose water is intercepted by frequent dams for irrigation before ever it reaches the sea. Very little forest is to be found in any part of the District. The cultivated plain is absolutely barren of trees, except where a newly planted avenue marks the line of a main road. Groves of palmyra and cocoa-nut palms flourish along the sea-coast and the banks of the rivers. Even on the Palni Hills there is little valuable timber. The summits are clothed with long grass, and it is only in the *sholás* or broken ravines that any forest trees grow. As many as 103 different kinds of ferns have been enumerated in different parts of the District; and among the wild products of the Palnis are nutmeg, cinnamon, and pepper. A total area of 17,440 acres has been set apart by Government as fuel reserves, to supply the railway demand; the value of the fuel thus provided is about £250 a year. The wild animals of Madura are almost entirely confined to the western hills, where the tiger, leopard, bear, elephant, bison, ibex, *sámbhar* deer, and packs of wild dogs are still to be found. The tiger has been almost exterminated in recent years. Those occasionally seen are supposed to have wandered across the Travancore frontier. The *paligár* dogs are a fine breed, very scarce and difficult to obtain by purchase. Most of the other domestic animals—oxen, buffaloes, ponies, and sheep—are undersized and miserable creatures, no attention being given to their breeding or management.

The predominant geological formation is granite, which is supposed to underlie the surface soil everywhere, and crops up on the Palni Hills in the form of gneiss, quartz, and felspar. Syenite occurs in large boulders. A gravelly bed of laterite runs across the District, which is quarried for building purposes; and sandstone is said to extend along the whole length of the sea-coast. Mineral products include saltpetre and salt (which effloresce from the clay soils), lime, chalk, and graphite. Iron in various forms is found in all parts of the District; but it is nowhere worked profitably, even by the rude native processes. Gold is washed

in some of the streams that flow down from the Palni Hills. Among precious stones are found several kinds of opal, chalcedony, jasper, garnet, and rock-crystal.

History.—Madura boasts a more ancient and continuous history than perhaps any other District of the Madras Presidency. Here was the capital of the Pandyan monarchy, commemorated by Greek geographers, which held its own from the earliest days until overthrown by the Muhammadan invader. Here, in later days, was the kingdom of the Náyaks, which extended its sway over all the surrounding Districts, and culminated in the glorious reign of Tirumala (1623-59). This same period saw the successful enterprise of the Jesuit missionaries, under their great leaders Robert de Nobilibus and De Britto. Subsequently, when all the native dynasties of Southern India were falling to pieces under the contact of European civilisation, Madura became the scene of continual warfare between the Muhammadans and the Marhattás, until it passed to the British in 1801.

The actual truth regarding the Pandyan period is enshrouded in the mists of sacred legends, but the existence of such a period is attested by a multiplicity of authorities. The author of the *Periplus* describes the whole Malabar coast as under 'King Pandion.' Ptolemy, a little later, places 'Pandion' on the eastern side of Cape Comorin. Not a few rock-hewn inscriptions and copper-plate grants are still in existence to prove the names and attributes of some of the Pandyan kings. Local tradition is preserved in the *Madhura Sthala Purána*, a Sanskrit chronicle, to which Professor Wilson assigned a probable antiquity of 800 years. This curious document contains a considerable amount of information concerning the primitive doctrines of the Sivaite sect, and unquestionably embalms a few historical facts. The results of modern criticism seem to show that the Pandyas were established in Madura at least as early as the 5th century before our era, and that their empire lasted until the end of the 11th century A.D. The last of the line, named Sundara Pandya in the *Purána*, but known in Tamil legend as Kún Pandya, is said to have exterminated the Jains and conquered the neighbouring kingdom of Chola; but he was in his turn overthrown by an invader from the north, who is plausibly conjectured to have been a Muhammadan. It is certain that about 1324 a Musalmán army occupied Madura under the command of Málik Naib Káfar, and maltreated the subject Hindus for a period of fifty years. Subsequently the District of Madura became a province of the great Hindu empire of Vijáyanagar. Its history is confused and unimportant until the middle of the 16th century, when Viswanáth, the founder of the Náyak dynasty, was sent from Vijáyanagar as ruler to Madura, accompanied by a famous general, Arya Nayaga Muthali. Viswanáth was not only the head of a line of prosperous kings, but also the originator of a sort of

feudal system which gave all the local chieftains a place of honour and responsibility under the central authority. The city of Madura had 72 bastions; and each of these bastions was placed in charge of a particular chief, to whom a special tract of country was assigned on condition of military service. Such was the origin of the 72 *paligárs* or *pálaiyakárans* of Madura, some of whom have maintained their possessions to the present day. Viswanáth ruled at Madura from 1559 to 1563, and so consolidated his conquests that they passed peacefully to a long series of his descendants. The greatest of the line was Tirumala (1623-1659), whose magnificence and military exploits are recorded in the contemporary letters of the Jesuit missionaries. He adorned Madura with many public buildings, which still exist in tolerable preservation; and extended his empire over the adjoining Districts of Tinnevelli, Travancore, Coimbatore, Salem, and Trichinopoli. His gross revenue is estimated to have amounted to more than one million sterling, the greater part of which was derived from the crown lands. Emboldened by his prosperity, he threw off the nominal allegiance which his ancestors had always paid to the now effete Rájá of Vijáyanagar, a step which brought him into collision with the more powerful, though more distant, Sultán of Bijápur. The Muhammadans, after the lapse of many centuries, again invaded Madura, and compelled Tirumala to pay them tribute. The last days of the old king were gratified by a successful invasion of Mysore; but his policy of fomenting disunion among the Hindu Rájás was one of the chief causes which subsequently led to the predominance of the Musalmáns throughout Southern India. After the death of Tirumala, the kingdom of Madura gradually fell to pieces. Tanjore was overrun by the Marhattás under Ekoji, a brother of Sivají the Great; Mysore was consolidated by the ambitious policy of the Hindu Wadeyars, and afterwards by the usurper Haidar Alí; while Muhammadan influence steadily advanced southwards in the name of the Nawábs of the Karnatic. In 1740, Madura fell into the hands of Chanda Sáhib, and the line of the Náyaks was finally extinguished. During the next twenty years, the country became an easy prey to each successive band of invaders—Marhattá or Musalmán. In 1762, British officers took charge of the District, in trust for Wallah Jah, the last independent Nawáb of the Karnatic, who finally ceded his rights of sovereignty to the East India Company in 1801. The *táluk* of DINDIGAL had been captured from Mysore, after many military vicissitudes, in 1790.

The two large *zamíndárí* estates of RAMNAD and SIVAGANGA have a subordinate history of their own. The coast-line of Rámnád is the home of a race called Marávars, who are supposed to be of aboriginal descent. Their chief, known as the Sethupati, is the hereditary guardian of the temple of Rámeswaram, an office which he claims

to have received from the god Ráma. It would seem that he always owed allegiance to the Pandyan Rájás; but the ascertained history of the family begins in 1605, when a monarch of the Náyak line appointed the Sethupati to be the first of his 72 *paligárs.* So long as the Náyak dynasty endured, they had no more faithful defenders than the Marávars of Rámnád. Amid the general anarchy which followed on the death of Tirumala in 1659, the Sethupati succeeded in maintaining the integrity of his ancestral dominions. But in the beginning of the 18th century, a succession of famines desolated the country. These were aggravated by internal dissensions; and in 1729, the kingdom of Rámnád was dismembered. Three-fifths were left to the legitimate heir, while two-fifths were assigned to a rebellious vassal, whose descendant now bears the title of Rájá of Sivaganga. In the early days of British rule, both these *zamíndárís* were centres of armed disaffection. At the present day, they are notorious for neglected administration and backward agriculture, forming a marked contrast to those portions of the District held under the ordinary *rayatwárí* tenure. The Rámnád estate is now under the management of the Court of Wards, and its young Rájá is receiving the benefit of a European education.

Population.—An enumeration, taken in 1850-51, returned the number of the people at 1,744,587. The general Census of 1871 disclosed a total for the whole District of 2,266,615 persons, residing in 5459 villages and in 443,513 houses; average number of persons per village, 415·2; persons per house, 5·11. The total area was taken at 9502 square miles, which gives the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 341·5; villages per square mile, 1·7; houses per square mile, 46·7. Classified according to sex, there were 1,112,066 males and 1,154,549 females; proportion of males, 44·6 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years — 430,264 boys and 380,984 girls; total children, 811,248, or 35·8 per cent. of the population. The religious division shows the following results:—Hindus, 2,062,768, or 91 per cent.; Muhammadans, 132,833, or 5·9 per cent.; Christians, 70,786, or 3·1 per cent.; Jains, 13; and 215 'others.' The great majority of the Hindus, in the proportion of 5 to 1, profess the Sivaite as opposed to the Vishnuvite faith; but it must be remembered that all demon-worshippers, including those of manifest aboriginal descent, are classed as worshippers of Siva. The Christians include 175 Europeans and 166 Eurasians; the remainder (70,445) represent native converts, who are more numerous than in any other District of Madras, except Tinnevelli.

The history of Christianity in Madura yet remains to be worthily written. In the beginning of the 17th century, we find a Jesuit church in Madura, where a Portuguese priest ministered to a poor congregation of fishermen, who had originally been converted by Francis Xavier. In

1606, Robert de Nobilibus visited Madura, and his soul was at once fired with the ambition of becoming the apostle of the Hindus. Having previously obtained the consent of the Archbishop of Cranganore, he adopted the mode of life, diet, and garb of a *sanyásí* or religious devotee. Shutting himself up in the strictest seclusion, in order to master the Tamil language, he took care that the fame of his sanctity should be noised abroad. Gradually the people crowded round to learn who this strange teacher was, who gave out that he was no *parangi* or Portuguese, but a *guru* from Rome, 'meditating upon God.' The success of his plan was very great. Men began by wondering at his asceticism, the profundity of his oriental learning, the purity of his accent, the subtlety of his intellect. They ended by becoming converts to his teaching, which allowed them to retain not a few of the ceremonial observances of Hinduism. It is currently said that the great king, Tirumala Náyak, heard him gladly. After labouring altogether about forty years, Robert de Nobilibus died in 1660 in a village near Madras, in the same state of abject poverty that he had always lived. He left behind him a number of religious works, written in Tamil on palm leaves; but it is not known whether they are in existence at the present day. His greatest successor was John de Britto, a Portuguese of illustrious birth and high education, who devoted himself to the civilisation of the wild tribe of Marávars. He was martyred in 1693, by order of the Sethupati. The last and most learned of the Madura Jesuits was Beschi, who compiled the first Tamil grammar, and whose Tamil writings are regarded by native *pandits* as the high-water mark of their literature. In the time of Robert de Nobilibus the native converts were estimated at more than one million souls. The Roman Catholics now number about 60,000, under the charge of two missions—the Jesuits, and the Church of Goa. The former maintain 15 European priests, who perform service in about 300 chapels scattered over the District. The annual expenditure is said to amount to only £2500 a year, derived from the parent society. The Protestant cause is represented by an American mission, first established at Madura in 1834. In 1866, they had ten stations, each under the charge of a missionary, usually assisted by his wife. In that year there were 2439 baptized converts, and 1164 communicants. The annual expenditure is about £7000. The chief success of the Protestants lies in their schools.

The three characteristic castes, or rather tribes, among the Hindus of Madura District are the Vellálars, the Marávars, and the Kallars. The Vellálars are the most numerous and the most respected class of agriculturists. They are traditionally believed to be foreign immigrants, introduced into the country by the Pandya dynasty; but they speak a pure Tamil dialect, and there is no reason to doubt that they belong to a Dravidian stock. Under native rule, they were feudal

landlords, cultivating their estates by predial serfs. Their religion is a strict form of Siva-worship. The Marávars chiefly inhabit the two *zamíndári* estates bordering the sea-coast. By their physical appearance, not less than by their superstitious practices, they reveal their aboriginal descent. Their hereditary chiefs are the Rájás of Rámnád and Sivaganga. In early times they were renowned as bold warriors, and they have more than once risen against British authority. In contrast to the rules of Hinduism, they bury their dead and allow the remarriage of widows. The Kallars are a tribe of professional robbers, whose headquarters are in the tributary State of Pudukotta. In the history of Orme they appear as 'the Colleries,' whose lawless spirit and personal bravery repeatedly led to sanguinary rebellions against the British officers of the District. Their original and ethnical affinities are unknown. Their only religion is a debased form of demon-worship. Among their distinctive practices are polyandry and circumcision. Externally, they may be known by the monstrous fashion in which they distend the lobe of the ear.

The principal towns in the District are—MADURA CITY, pop. (1871), 51,987; DINDIGAL, pop. 12,818; Palni, Killakarai, Rámnád, Aruppukottei, Periyákulam, Tirumangalam, Paramagudi, and Sivaganga. The only municipalities are Madura and Dindigal, which had in 1876-77 an aggregate municipal income of £6641; the rate of taxation being 1s. 4d. per head in Madura, and 11d. in Dindigal.

Agriculture.—The total area of Madura District is estimated at 9502 square miles, of which 6507 square miles, or 67 per cent., belong to *zamíndári* or permanently assessed estates. Concerning these no agricultural statistics are available. The total area of the *rayatwári* or Government village lands under occupation in the *fasli* year 1285 (1875-76 A.D.), was 1,013,000 acres. The area actually cultivated in that year was 806,630 acres, paying an assessment of £149,854. Of this amount, 650,426 acres were classed as 'dry,' and 109,302 as 'wet.' The chief food crops are rice (Oryza sativa), *cholam* (Holcus saccharatus), *kambu* (Holcus spicatus), *rági* (Eleusine corocana), *varagu* (Paspalum frumentaceum), *samai* (Panicum miliaceum), and several kinds of pulses. Other crops include oil-seeds, tobacco of excellent quality, grown in the neighbourhood of Dindigal, and a little indigo and cotton. No less than 29 different varieties of rice are enumerated, which differ from one another considerably in respect of productiveness, rapidity of growth, and quality of grain. The two most extensively sown are *sambá* and *milagi.* Rice can be grown on almost every description of land, provided that a constant supply of water is obtainable, sufficient to cover the ground to a depth of 2 inches. In a favourable year, the ploughing is done in the months of June and July, after the early rains; the seed is sown in nurseries by the beginning of August; after about thirty days, the seedlings

are ready for transplanting; in January, the crop is reaped. The principal harvest of the year is called *kálam*. A second crop of rice or inferior grains is sometimes obtained from the same field. In recent years, the price of rice has risen so enormously as to place it beyond the reach of all but the rich. The staple food supply of the mass of the people is derived from the 'dry grains,' *i.e.* those which need no irrigation. These are pounded, and eaten in the form of a thin porridge, with any condiment that can be got. The annual rainfall of Madura is both small in amount and variable in its seasons. Every possible means of storing up the surplus waters has been resorted to from time immemorial. All the hill streams, and especially the Váiga, are crossed by frequent anicuts or dams, which lead off the flood water into storage tanks, whence it is distributed over the fields with the utmost care and ingenuity. Some of these tanks are very large, and capable of supplying many hundred acres in a favourable year. That at Rájá-sinh-mangalam, in the north of Rámnád, is said to be 20 miles in circumference. Unfortunately, many have been suffered to fall out of repair, especially in the coast *zamíndárís*. An important engineering project, known as the Periyár Scheme, has long been under consideration, by which the abundant rainfall on the farther slope of the Travancore Hills would be diverted by a cutting or tunnel into the drainage basin of the Váiga.

In the famine year of 1877-78, Madura District was situated on the southernmost limit of distress. The deltaic rice tract of Tanjore was secure from scarcity; the southern angle of Tinnevelli was also comparatively free, while the northern hilly Districts of Salem and Coimbatore were severely afflicted. In Madura itself about 60,000 persons, or nearly 3 per cent. of the population, were in receipt of relief in August 1877, when the famine was at its height. The South Indian line of railway, then recently opened, did invaluable service by bringing rice from the port of Tuticorin.

Manufactures, etc.—With the exception of salt, which is manufactured at certain stations on the sea-coast by solar evaporation as a Government monopoly, the industries of Madura are insignificant. Handsome turbans fringed with gold cloth, and a peculiar kind of red cloth, are specialities of Madura town. Turbans, also, and coarse chintz are woven at Dindigal. Piece-goods, cotton twist, earthenware, and brass vessels are made all over the District, in sufficient quantities to leave a surplus for exportation. The saltpetre trade is languishing; and the iron-ores, though abundant, have never been utilized. A considerable traffic is carried on by sea in native craft, though the inhospitable coast-line is destitute of a single harbour. In 1876-77, the total number of vessels engaged in the foreign trade was 2575, or more than in any other District of the Presidency; but the total tonnage was only 257,082, or an average of just 100 tons. By far the greater share of the foreign

trade is carried on with Ceylon. The coasting trade proper employed only 103 vessels, and 14,263 tons. The principal exports from the District are rice and other grains, dregs of gingelly-oil, spices, piece-goods, salt fish, red ochre, and earthenware. Tobacco is despatched by land from Dindigal in large quantities, to be made up into Trichinopoli cheroots. The chief means of internal communication is the South Indian Railway, which runs across the District in a northerly direction from Tinnevelli to Trichinopoli. During the famine of 1877-78, this little narrow-gauge line proved of inestimable service.

Administration.—In the year 1875-76, the total imperial revenue of Madura District amounted to £393,448. The chief items were—land, £280,067, or 71 per cent.; salt, £47,035; *ábkárí* or excise, £27,240; court fees, £25,047; stamps, £23,070. In the following year (1876-77), the revenue fell under the influence of the famine to £269,218, being a decrease of £124,230, or 31 per cent. In that year, local funds yielded a total revenue of £45,834, mainly derived from a land cess. The aggregate municipal income of Madura town and Dindigal in 1876-77 was £6641. In 1876, the daily average number of prisoners in jail was 470·89, of whom 13·95 were women. These figures show 1 prisoner always in jail to every 4812 of the population. The total expenditure was £3133, or £12, 17s. 5d. per prisoner. Jail manufactures yielded a net profit of £183. The total number of deaths in jail was 45, showing an annual mortality of 95·5 per thousand.

Education has made rapid progress in recent years. In 1857, there was only 1 school in the District, attended by 163 pupils. By 1867, the number of schools had risen to 65, with 2330 pupils. In that year, 48 candidates went up for the matriculation examination of the Madras University, of whom 16 passed. The educational statistics for 1876-77 show a total of 424 schools and 12,509 pupils, being 1 school to every 22·4 square miles, and 5·5 pupils to every thousand of the population. The language of the District is Tamil, with a little Kanarese spoken on the western boundary. English is now understood by a considerable number of natives in the town of Madura. There are three printing-presses in the District—two in native hands, and the Press belonging to the American Mission, who publish a Tamil newspaper called the *Sattiavartamani.*

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Madura is described as hot, dry, and variable. Its characteristics are, that there is no regular cold season, and that the scanty rainfall is distributed over the greater part of the year. During the ten years ending 1875-76, the average annual rainfall is returned at only 28·81 inches, of which 13·57 inches were brought by the south-west or early monsoon, and 15·24 by the north-east monsoon, which usually breaks in October. The months from

December to February are the coolest in the year, being marked by heavy dews at night and fogs in the morning and evening. Along the sea-coast the sultriness of the hot season is tempered by sea-breezes. The climate on the Palni Hills resembles the 'half-English air' of the Nílgiris.

The District cannot be termed healthy, at least for natives. Besides the usual diseases of India, Madura possesses three especial scourges—endemic fever, which sometimes rages with exceptional severity, as in the fatal year 1811; cholera, disseminated by pilgrims to the sacred temple at Rámeswaram; and the well-known 'Madura foot.' The last complaint, known to science as *Morbus pedis entophyticus*, is a species of fungus, which spreads over the whole foot in a mass of tubercles. Its primary cause seems to be unknown. The registration of deaths is entirely untrustworthy. The returns for 1876 show a death-rate of only 18·06 per thousand, which is probably about one-half of the actual truth. The municipal dispensary at Madura town gave relief in 1876-77 to a total of 21,073 patients, of whom 405 were in-door patients. The American Mission maintains two dispensaries at Madura and Dindigal, aided from municipal funds. In 1876, the former was attended by 10,426 patients, the latter by 9110.

Madura (*Mad'hurá*).—The chief town of the District of the same name in the Madras Presidency; situated on the south bank of the Vaiga river, 33 miles by road south-south-east of Dindigal. Lat. 9° 55′ 16″ N., long. 78° 9′ 44″ E. According to the Census of 1871, Madura has a total population of 51,987 persons, being the fourth most populous town in the Presidency. It has been constituted a municipality under Act III. of 1871. The municipal committee numbers 26 members, of whom 12 are natives. In 1876-77, the total municipal income amounted to £7983, including a balance of £2130. The proportion derived from taxation was £3500, showing an average incidence of 1s. 1d. per head of population. The chief items of revenue were—tax on houses and lands, £1629; tolls, £1519; rents of markets, etc., £958. In the same year, the total municipal expenditure amounted to £6052, leaving a balance in hand of £1931. The principal objects of expenditure were—establishment, £397; conservancy, £1519; lighting, £673; roads, £882; medical, £1252; education, £612.

The history of the town is included in that already given for the District. From time immemorial, Madura has been both the political and religious capital of the extreme South. Its traditional line of Pandyan kings dates back beyond the Christian era; and in historical times, it was the chosen residence of the powerful monarch Tirumala Náyak, to whom all its architectural glories are assigned. The foundation of the city and the sanctity of the great pagoda are described at length in the *Mad'hurá St'hala Purána*, with all the usual amplifica-

tions of Bráhmanical legend. In conjunction with the temple at Rámeswaram, it is honoured with the personal presence of the great god Siva, whose worship is predominant in Southern India, to the exclusion of the other two members of the Hindu Trinity. At the present time, the two most sacred shrines in the pagoda are those of Sundareshwara and his wife Minakshi. In the middle of the 14th century, the country was overrun by a Muhammadan invader, who is said to have persecuted the Hindus with relentless severity, and to have sentenced the pagoda to destruction. He pulled down the outer wall with its 14 towers, and levelled the numerous buildings which always cluster round a native temple. But the two inmost shrines were miraculously preserved; and on the expulsion of the Musalmáns, the priests of Siva regained their revenues, and rebuilt the four lofty *gopurás* or gateways which now stand in the outer wall. The Madura pagoda has been elaborately described by Fergusson (*History of Indian Architecture*). It forms a parallelogram, 847 feet long from north to south, by 744 feet broad, surrounded by 9 *gopurás* in all, one of which is 152 feet high. The principal structure is the *Sahasra-stambha-mantapam*, or 'Hall of One Thousand Pillars' (the actual number being 997), which was built by Arya Nayaga Muthali, the general and minister of Viswanáth, the founder of the Náyak dynasty (*cir.* 1550). The whole is profusely ornamented, both with sculptures and paintings.

The other great buildings of Madura are all associated with the name of Tirumala Náyak, who reigned from 1623 to 1659. The chief of these is the celebrated palace, the most perfect relic of secular architecture in the Madras Presidency. Its ruins cover a vast area of ground, and have been utilized at one time or another by successive administrations. Until recently, the Collector's offices were situated in one of the detached buildings, and the jail in another. The British Government has shown its consideration for the memories of native rule by devoting a large sum of money to the restoration of the palace. The main structure consists of two parts, an open court and a lofty hall. The style of architecture is a mixture of the Hindu and the Saracenic; but, as in the Muhammadan capitals of Northern India, a fanciful tradition relates that the native workmen were directed by a European master. The courtyard is approximately 100 yards square, with high walls of brick, forming long galleries surmounted by domes. One side is constituted a hall; and its lofty domed roof is supported by circular pillars of granite, thickly coated with chunam or lime, and destitute of ornament. The central area is said to have been the scene of gladiatorial exhibitions. The other hall is of smaller dimensions, being about 90 feet by 40 feet. It is covered by a pointed-arch roof of brick, which is strengthened by granite ribs springing from columns at the sides. Only second in importance to the palace is the Vasanta or Puthu *mantapam*, which still

exists in complete preservation. This is said to have been built as a summer retreat for the god Sundareshwara. It consists of a hall about 100 yards long by 30 yards wide. In this case the roof is flat, being composed of long slabs of granite, resting upon four rows of pillars, each 20 feet high, and numbering 124 in all. The whole is profusely ornamented with the characteristic emblems of the Hindu religion, carved in high relief. In addition, there are ten groups of sculptured effigies, some colossal and some small, representing Tirumala and his nine predecessors, with their wives. On the farther bank of the Váiga stands the Tamakam, a two-storied building of quaint architecture, said to have been erected as a kind of grand-stand, from which to view spectacular combats. Lastly, the Teppu-kulam or great tank, about a mile and a half east of the town, is also assigned to the time of Tirumala. The tank is a perfect square, each side measuring 1200 yards (Nelson). The banks are faced with hewn granite, and surmounted with a handsome parapet, also of granite, beneath which runs a continuous paved gallery. In the centre rises a square island, with a lofty domed temple in the middle and a tiny shrine at each corner. Once a year the banks of this tank are illuminated with a *lákh* (100,000) of lamps; while the idols from the pagoda are drawn round in a *teppam* or raft, from which the work takes its name. The tank always contains water (except in the famine year of 1877), and its neighbourhood is the favourite resort of European residents for an evening drive.

Under British rule, the town of Madura has been greatly improved by laying out wide streets and market-places. A large sum of money has been expended, though not with entire success, to obtain a constant supply of water from the Váiga. The principal modern buildings are—the new jail; the civil hospital, standing on a ruined gateway, which is all that remains of the old fort; the District school-house, founded in 1856. The Jesuits, who were established in Madura by the beginning of the 17th century, have several churches in the town, and a small dispensary. The American Protestant Mission, dating from 1834, possess a central high school and a very useful hospital. The municipality also maintains a District school, with accommodation for 300 pupils; and a hospital, with a lying-in department attached, which was attended in 1876-77 by 405 in-door and 20,668 out-door patients. Madura is a station on the South Indian Railway. The traffic returns show a total of about 150,000 passengers, and a revenue of £21,000 in the year.

Madurá.—River in Cáchár District, Assam; tributary to the Barák on its north or left bank.

Mafúz Bandar. — Town in Ganjám District, Madras. — *See* CHICACOLE.

Magadi.—*Táluk* in Bangalore District, Mysore. Area, 220 square miles, of which 119 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 99,086, namely, 94,190 Hindus, 4617 Muhammadans, 260 Jains, and 19 Christians. Land revenue (1874-75), excluding water rates, £9626, or 2s. 7d. per cultivated acre. A hilly and jungle-covered tract, containing the hill fort of Savandrúg. The soil is a shallow red mould, mixed with stones. Crops—*rágí*, gram, *avare*, *togari*, and tobacco.

Magadi. — Municipal village in Bangalore District, Mysore, and headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name; situated in lat. 12° 57′ 20″ N., and long. 77° 16′ 10″ E.; 28 miles by road west of Bangalore. Pop. (1871), 3712; municipal revenue (1874-75), £67; rate of taxation, 4d. per head. Said to have been founded in 1139 by a Chola king. In the 16th century, it passed into the hands of Immadi Kempe Gauda of Bangalore, who fixed his residence here. In 1728, it was captured by the Hindu Rájá of Mysore. The fort is now deserted, the town being built on a slope to the north. The ruined temple of Sameswara was erected by Kempe Gauda.

Maganand. — Mountain pass in Sírmúr State, Punjab, over the Siwálik Hills, on the route from Sádhaura to Náhan; 5 miles south-west of the latter town, in lat. 30° 32′ N., long. 77° 19′ E. The path leads up the valley of the Markanda, past the village of Maganand. It formed the rendezvous of the British column for the attack on Náhan during the Gúrkha war in 1815. Approximate elevation of the crest above sea level, about 2600 feet.

Magar Taláo (*Crocodile Tank*, also called *Magar Pír*, or more correctly, *Pír Mangho*).—Tank, hot springs, and temple in Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind; situated about 7 or 8 miles north of Karáchí, among some very barren and rocky hills. Lat. 24° 58′ N., long. 67° 5′ E. (Thornton). The following description of this curious place is by Carless, who visited the spot many years ago, but whose account applies, with but few exceptions, to its appearance at the present day :—

'We came suddenly upon one of the most singular scenes I ever witnessed. The accounts of my companions had prepared me for something extraordinary, but the reality far surpassed their description. Before us lay a small swamp enclosed in a belt of lofty trees, which had evidently been formed by the superfluous waters of the spring close by flowing into a low hollow in the ground. It was not a single sheet of water, but was full of small islets, so much so that it appeared as if an immense number of narrow channels had been cut, so as to cross each other in every direction. These channels were literally swarming with crocodiles, and the islets and banks were covered with them also. The swamp is not more than 150 yards long, by about 80 yards broad; and in this confined space I counted above 200 large

ones, from 8 to 15 feet long, while those of a smaller size were innumerable; our horses were standing within 4 or 5 yards of several reclining on the bank, but they took no notice of them, and would not move until roused by a stick. In a small pool, apart from the swamp, there was a very large one, which the people designate the "chief," because he lives by himself in a kind of state, and will not allow any of the common herd to intrude upon his favourite haunt. It is worthy of remark, that there were several buffaloes standing in the water in the centre of the swamp, and that though the large crocodiles frequently came in contact with them in swimming past, they never offered them the least molestation. The natives say they never touch a buffalo, but will instantly attack any other animal, however large. The appearance of the place altogether, with its green, slimy, stagnant waters, and so many of these huge, uncouth monsters moving sluggishly about, is disgusting in the extreme, and it will long be remembered by me as the most loathsome spot I ever beheld. After gazing upon the scene some time, we proceeded round the swamp to the temple, where the priests had spread carpets for the party under the shade of some trees. They told me it was a curious sight to see the crocodiles fed, and that people of rank always gave them a goat for that purpose. Taking the hint, I immediately ordered one to be killed for their entertainment. The animal was slaughtered on the edge of the swamp, and the instant the blood began to flow, the water became perfectly alive with the brutes, all hastening from different parts towards the spot. In the course of a few minutes, and long before the goat was cut up, upwards of 150 had collected in a mass on the dry bank, waiting with distended jaws until their anticipated feast was ready. We stood within 3 yards of them, and if one more daring than the rest showed any desire to approach nearer, he was beaten back by the children with sticks. Indeed they were so sluggish, and if I may use the expression, tame, that I laid hold of one, about 12 feet long, by his tail, which I took care, however, protruded to a safe distance beyond the mass. When the meat was thrown among them, it proved the signal for a general battle; several seized hold of a piece at the same time, and bit and struggled and rolled over each other until almost exhausted with the desperate efforts they made to carry it off. At last all was devoured, and they retired slowly to the water. . . . The mosque is a neat white building, of a square form, surrounded by a broad terrace, with a cupola and slender minarets at the corners, erected on the summit of a rocky crag of limestone, and said to be 2000 years old. It is dedicated to Pír Haji Mangho, who is esteemed a saint by both Hindus and Muhammadans, and is held in such high veneration throughout Sind, that numbers of bodies are yearly brought from a great distance to be interred near his shrine. The valley is, in consequence, covered with

burying-grounds, which are full of tombs, elaborately carved and ornamented. The interior of the mosque contains a tomb surmounted by a canopy of carved woodwork supported on slender pillars, the whole prettily and neatly ornamented, and kept in excellent order, as are the building and terrace, which are built of stone. On the side of the rock looking towards the alligators' pool, the perpendicular face of the cliff is covered with a coating of smooth *chunam*, and from the lower part the principal spring gushes forth through a small fissure. The water is received into two stone reservoirs, and then escapes through several outlets to the swamp below. In one of them was a large alligator, with about a dozen young ones, which the inhabitants have named the "Peacock" (or Mor), and they consider him to be the progenitor of the whole race. The water of this spring is perfectly fresh and slightly warm, but at another, a few yards from it, it is quite cold. On leaving the temple, we crossed the valley towards the salt spring, which is situate on the eastern side at the base of a narrow ridge of sandstone about 600 feet high. The water is extremely salt, and, after forming two or three small pools, escapes in several streams, swarming with small crocodiles, through an opening in the ridge, and is absorbed in the sandy plain on the other side. The natives say the water in the pools sometimes rises and falls, and they attribute this to the influence of the ocean tides upon it; but this cannot be the true cause, as the rise only takes place at long intervals, and the plains, besides, ascend gradually from the sea up to the spot, which I estimated to be about 150 feet above its level. That there is a considerable rise in the water at times is evident from the extent of ground about the spring that has been overflowed, and which is covered with a saline incrustation to the depth of 2 or 3 inches; and it is probably produced merely by a sudden increase in the body of water issuing from it, caused by a heavy fall of rain among the mountains in the vicinity.'

At the present time a fairly constructed road runs from Karáchí to Magar Pír, and thence a rough track leads westerly to the Habb river, and another north to Sháh Biláwal, in the Province of Las. There is a Government *dharmsála* at Magar Pír, as also a small bungalow erected by a Parsí, where visitors can put up during their stay here. It is worthy of remark, that the crocodiles at this place, which are now confined within a small inclosure fed by the thermal springs, are altogether different from the *ghariál*, or long-snouted kind, which abounds in the Indus.

Magdapur.—*Parganá* of Kheri District, Oudh; situated south of Atwa Pipária, between the Kathna river on the east and the Gumti on the west. Area, 56 square miles, of which 30 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 9949, residing in 34 villages, of which 26 are held under *tálukdárí* tenure. Government land revenue, £1248. Magdapur was

only created a separate *pargand* at the time of the recent Settlement, prior to which it formed a part of BARWAR.

Maghar.—Village in Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 26° 42′ N., and long. 83° 11′ E. Situated on the river Ami, 18 miles west of Gorakhpur. Only noticeable as containing the tomb of Kábir, a Muhammadan saint.

Maghiána.—Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Jhang District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 16′ 40″ N., long. 72° 20′ 55″ E. Forms municipally a single town with Jhang, which lies 3 miles north. Pop. (1868), 10,525, consisting of 5192 Hindus, 4698 Muhammadans, 306 Síkhs, and 329 'others.' Joint population of the two towns, 19,649. Maghiána lies on the edge of the highlands, overlooking the alluvial valley of the Chenáb; while the older town of Jhang occupies the lowlands at its foot. The Government offices and establishments have now been removed to the higher site, and commerce has almost deserted Jhang. Maghiána has considerable trade with Kandahár, large exports of country cloth, and a fluctuating business in grain from the fertile lowlands of the Rávi. The civil station lies to the east of Maghiána, and consists only of a court-house and treasury, sessions bungalow, jail, small church, and three or four residences of officials. For municipal statistics and further details, see JHANG.

Magori.—One of the petty States of Mahi Kánta, Bombay. Estimated pop. (1875), 2718; estimated revenue, £500. Tribute of £9 is paid to the Rájá of Edar. The chief, Thákur Hamat Sinh, is a Rahtor Rájput.

Magrah.—Town in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 59′ 5″ N., long. 88° 25′ E.; a few miles west of Tribení. Station on the East India Railway. Good *bázár*. Seat of considerable local trade.

Magráyar.—*Parganá* of Unao District, Oudh; bounded on the north by *parganá* Purwa, on the east by Panhán and Pátan, on the south by Ghatampur, and on the west by Harha. Area, 31 square miles, of which only 10 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 16,188, principally Bráhmans. Government land revenue, £2186, or an average of 2s. 3d. per acre. Of the 31 villages comprising the *parganá*, 12 are held under *tálukdárí*, 11 under *zamíndárí*, and 8 under *pattidárí* tenure.

Mágurá.—Subdivision of Jessor District, Bengal, lying between 23° 15′ 30″ and 23° 41′ N. lat., and between 89° 17′ 30″ and 89° 43′ 30″ E. long. Area, 425 square miles; villages, 512; houses, 41,563; pop. (1872), 275,720, of whom 126,341 were Hindus, 148,161 Muhammadans, 91 Christians, and 1127 'others.' Average number of persons per square mile, 602; of villages, 1·51; of houses, 92; persons per house, 6·5; proportion of males to total population, 48·9. The Subdivision contained (1870-71) 1 magisterial and revenue court, with

4 police stations, a regular police force of 55 men, besides 691 village watchmen; cost of Subdivisional administration returned at £1608, 12s.

Mágurá.—Chief town of Mágurá Subdivision, Jessor District, Bengal; situated in lat. 23° 29′ 25″ N., and long. 89° 28′ 5″ E., on the Nabagangá river, at the point where the Muchíkhalí brings down into it the waters of the Garái and Kumár. Brisk export of sugar, and import of rice. Sugar refineries. Extensive manufacture of reed mats is carried on; and oil is extracted from mustard seeds. The town is divided into two parts—Mágurá proper, with the *bázár*, and Darí Mágurá on the west. Protected from inundation by the Nabagangá embankment. Dispensary.

Ma-gyí-beng.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Now includes Kyí-ma-no, Gúnmyeng-myoung, Keng-mwon-khyún, Tsa-khan-gyí, Tha-zí, Kan-tha, Kan-tseng-ngay, and Nat-ta-leng. Pop. (1876-77), 3748; gross revenue, £813.

Mahábaleshwar.—Principal sanitarium of the Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 17° 58′ 5″ N., and long. 73° 42′ 35″ E., in the Jauli Subdivision of Satára District. Mahábaleshwar occupies the prolonged, and in places almost level, summit of a range of the Western Gháts, from which it takes it name; with a general elevation of 4500 feet above sea level, and points rising to 4700. It is reached from Bombay by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway to Poona (119 miles), and thence by post-carriage or on horseback (74 miles) by good road, either by the Katraj and Kamatki *gháts* or by the Pasarni *ghát*. Rest-houses are established along the route, and carriages can be driven right up the Pasarni *ghát*, although it is expedient to assist the horses by a dozen coolies, or to perform that stage by bullocks. A new route (opened March 1875) conveys travellers by steamboats from Bombay to Dasgáon, near the mouth of the Savitri river, from which an old road leads (35 miles) across the intermediate plain and up the *ghát* to Mahábaleshwar station.

Mahábaleshwar combines all the conditions requisite for a first-class sanitarium. Easy access for invalids from the great centres of Bombay and Poona, ample level space for carriage exercise at the top of the hill, an excellent water supply, picturesque scenery, and proximity to the fresh sea-breeze. It was established by Sir John Malcolm, the Governor in Bombay in 1828, who obtained the site from the Rájá of Satára in exchange for another patch of territory. The founder's name still survives in the village of Malcolmpet. The superior elevation of Mahábaleshwar (4500 feet) renders it much cooler than Máthrán (2460), but its heavy rainfall makes it almost uninhabitable during the rainy season. The monsoon strikes this outlying range of the Gháts with its full force, and deposits on their slopes the main portion of

its aqueous burden. The average discharge is about 240 inches, and the residents leave the station *en masse* on the first burst of the summer rains, and retire to Poona. Mahábaleshwar forms the retreat usually during spring, and occasionally in autumn of the Governor of the Bombay Presidency, the Commander-in-Chief of the Bombay Army, and the chief officers of their headquarters establishments. It is a municipality under the administrative charge of a Superintendent, almost always a member of the Bombay Medical Service. An interesting cinchona garden has been established by the Government; but the experimental cultivation of the drug has not yet yielded results here (1876) which can be compared with the success obtained in the Nílgiri Hills of Madras, and at Dárjíling in Bengal. Mahábaleshwar has the usual public buildings of a first-class sanitarium—church, clubs, library, hotels, cemetery, telegraph and post office, etc. The population varies according to the time of the year, but was returned in 1872 at 2759. Municipal revenue, £740. An excellent medical institution is presided over by the civil surgeon, who also acts as Superintendent of the station, and Assistant to the Collector at Satára.

Mahábalipur (‘*The City of the Great Bali*’—‘The Seven Pagodas;’ the vernacular name is also spelt, *Mahavellipur*, *Mavallipur*, *Mámalaipur*, *Mamallapur*, and *Mallapur*).—Village in Chengalpat (Chingleput) District, Madras; situated in lat. 12° 36′ 55″ N., and long. 80° 13′ 55″ E., 35 miles south of Madras. Population (1871), 777; number of houses, 107.

This is one of the most interesting and, to archæologists, one of the most important spots in Southern India. The dispute as to its name has been freely discussed in Major Carr's work on the ‘Seven Pagodas,’ and Mr. Crole's Manual of the District. It is a moot point, whether to the Malla family of the Chalukyas, or to Bali of legendary greatness, belongs the honour of naming these wonderful temples.

The antiquities of the place may be divided into three groups—(1) the 5 *raths* to the south of the village, belonging probably to the latest Buddhist period; (2) the cave temples, monolithic figures, carvings, and sculptures, west of the village, probably of the 6th or 7th century A.D. (these contain some marvellous *relievos*, ranking with those of Ellora and Elephanta); (3) the more modern temples of Vishnu and Siva, the latter being washed by the sea. To these two and five others, buried (according to tradition) by the sea, the place owes its English name. The following selections from Crole, Fergusson, and Hunter, accurately describe these antiquities :—

‘The best, and by far the most important, of this class is the pastoral group in the Krishna *mantapam*, as it is called. The fact is, that it represents Indra, the god of the sky, supporting the clouds with his left hand, to protect the cattle of Bala from the fury of the Maruts or

tempest demons. Near him, the cattle are being tended and milked. To the right, a young bull is seen, with head slightly turned and fore-foot extended, as if suddenly startled. This is one of the most spirited and life-like pieces of sculpture to be seen anywhere.

'A little to the north of this is the great bas-relief which goes by the name of "Arjun's Penance." It covers a mass of rock 96 feet in length and 43 feet in height, and is described by Fergusson as "the most remarkable thing of its class in India." "Now," says he, "that it is known to be wholly devoted to serpent-worship, it acquires an interest it had not before, and opens a new chapter in Indian mythology. There seems nothing to enable us to fix its age with absolute certainty; it can hardly, however, be doubted that it is anterior to the 10th century, and may be a couple of centuries earlier." . . . .

'Near the stone *choultry* by the side of the road, and a little to the north of the rock last described, stands a well-executed group lately exhumed, representing a couple of monkeys catching fleas on each other after the manner of their kind, while a young one is extracting nourishment from the female.

'Near this point, a spectator, looking southwards, may see, formed by the ridges on which the caves are cut, the recumbent figure of a man with his hands in the attitude of prayer or meditation. This remit measures at least 1500 feet long, the partly natural resemblance having been assisted by the rolling away of rocks and boulders. On the spot, this is called the "Giant Rájá Bali," but is no doubt the work of Jains.

'The whole of this ridge is pitted with caves and temples. There are 14 or 15 Rishi caves in it, and much carving and figuring of a later period. These are distinguished by the marked transition from the representations of scenes of peace to scenes of battle, treading down of opposition and destruction, the too truthful emblems of the dark centuries of religious strife which preceded and followed the final expulsion of the Buddhists. Their age is not more than 600 or 700 years; and the art is poor, and shows as great a decadence in matter as in religion. The representations are too often gross and disgusting, and the carving stiff and unnatural—entirely wanting in ease and grace and truth to nature.

'Behind this ridge, and near the canal, are two more of the monolithic *raths*, and one similar in form, but built of large blocks of stone.

'The last period is represented by the Shore Temple, the Varáhaswámí Temple in the village, and by some of the remains in a village in a hamlet called Sálewankuppen, 2 miles to the northward. In the two former, there is little distinguishable in construction and general plan from similar buildings to be found everywhere in the south.'—(Crole.)

'The oldest and most interesting group of monuments are the so-called five *raths*, or monolithic temples, standing on the sea-shore. One of these, that with the apsidal termination, stands a little detached from the rest. The other four stand in a line north and south, and look as if they had been carved out of a single stone or rock, which originally, if that were so, must have been between 35 feet and 40 feet high at its southern end, sinking to half that height at its northern extremity, and its width diminishing in a like proportion.

'The first on the north is a mere *pansala* or cell, 11 feet square externally, and 16 feet high. It is the only one, too, that seems finished or nearly so, but it has no throne or image internally, from which we might guess its destination.

'The next is a small copy of the last to the southward, and measures 11 feet by 16 feet in plan, and 20 feet in height. The third is very remarkable; it is an oblong building with a curvilinear-shaped roof with a straight ridge. Its dimensions are 42 feet long, 25 feet wide, and 25 feet high. Externally it seems to have been completely carved, but internally only partially excavated, the works being apparently stopped by an accident. It is cracked completely through, so that daylight can be seen through it, and several masses of the rock have fallen to the ground. This has been ascribed to an earthquake and other causes. My impression is that the explanation is not far to seek, but arose from unskilfulness on the part of workmen employed in a first attempt. Having completed the exterior, they set to work to excavate the interior, so as to make it resemble a structural building of the same class, leaving only such pillars and supports as were sufficient to support a wooden roof of the ordinary construction. In this instance, it was a mass of solid granite which, had the excavation been completed, would certainly have crushed the lower storey to powder. As it was, the builders seem to have taken the hint of the crack, and stopped the further progress of the works.

'The last, however, is the most interesting of the series. Its dimensions are 27 feet by 25 feet in plan, 34 feet in height. Its upper part is entirely finished with its sculptures, the lower merely blocked out. It may be that, frightened by the crack in the last-named *rath*, or from some other cause, they desisted, and it still remains in an unfinished state.

'The materials for fixing the age of this *rath* are, first, the palæographic form of the characters used in the numerous inscriptions with which it is covered. Comparing these with Prinsep's alphabets, allowing for difference of locality, they seem certainly to be anterior to the 7th century. The language, too, is Sanskrit, while all the Chola inscriptions of the 10th and subsequent centuries are in Tamil, and in very much more modern characters. Another proof of antiquity is the

character of the sculpture. We have on this *rath* most of the Hindu Pantheon, such as Bráhma and Vishnu; Siva, too, appears in most of his characters, but all in forms more subdued than to be found elsewhere. The one extravagance is that the gods have generally four arms—never more—to distinguish them from mortals; but none of these combinations or extravagances we find in the caves here, or at Ellora or Elephanta. It is the soberest and most reasonable version of the Hindu Pantheon yet discovered, and consequently one of the most interesting, as well, probably, as the earliest.

'None of the inscriptions on the *raths* have dates; but from the mention of the Pallavas in connection with this place, I see no reason for doubting the inference drawn by Sir Walter Elliot from their inscriptions—"that the excavations could not well have been made later than the 6th century." Add to all this, that these *raths* are certainly very like Buddhist buildings, and it seems hardly to admit of doubt that we have here petrifactions of the last forms of Buddhist architecture, and the first forms of that of the Dravidian.

'The want of interiors in these *raths* makes it sometimes difficult to make this as clear as it might be. We cannot, for instance, tell whether the apsidal *rath* was meant to reproduce a Chaitya hall, or *vihára*. From its being in several storeys, I would infer the latter; but the whole is so conventionalized by transplantation to the south, and by the different uses to which they are applied for the purposes of a different religion, that we must not stretch analogies too far.

'There is one other *rath*, at some distance from the others, called "Arjuna's Rath," which, strange to say, is finished, or nearly so, and gives a fair idea of the form their oblong temples took before we have any structural buildings of the class. This temple, though entered in the side, was never intended to be pierced through, but always to contain a cell. The large oblong *rath*, on the contrary, was intended to be open all round; and whether, consequently, we should consider it as a choultry or a *gopura* is not quite clear. One thing, at all events, seems certain—and it is what interests us most here—that the square *raths* are copies of Buddhist *viháras*, and are the originals from which all the *viswanas* in Southern India were copied, and continued to be copied nearly unchanged to a very late period. . . . On the other hand, the oblong *raths* were halls or porticoes with the Buddhists, and became the *gopuras* or gateways which are frequently, indeed generally, more important parts of Dravidian temples than the *viswanas* themselves. They too, like the *viswanas*, retain their original features very little changed to the present day.

'The other antiquities at Mahábalipur, though very interesting in themselves, are not nearly so important as the *raths* just described. The caves are generally small and fine architecturally, from the feeble-

ness and tenuity of their supports. The southern cave-diggers had evidently not been grounded in the art like their northern compeers, the Buddhists. The long experience of the latter in the art taught them that ponderous masses were not only necessary to support their roofs, but for architectural effect; and neither they, nor the Hindus who succeeded them in the north, ever hesitated to use pillars of two or three diameters in height, or to crowd them together to any required extent. In the south, on the contrary, the cave-diggers tried to copy literally the structural pillar used to support wooden roofs. Hence, I believe, the accident to the long *rath;* and hence certainly the poor and modern look of all the southern caves, which has hitherto proved such a stumbling-block to all who have tried to guess their age. Their sculpture is better, and some of their best designs rank with those of Ellora and Elephanta, with which they were, in all probability, contemporary. Now, however, that we know that the sculptures in Cave No. 3 at Badámi were executed in the 6th century (579 A.D.), we are enabled to approximate the date of those in the Mahábalipur caves with very tolerable certainty. The Badámi sculptures are so similar in style with the best examples there, that they cannot be far distant in date, and if placed in the following century it will not, probably, be far from the truth.'—(Fergusson.)

'On the left side of the rock, which is divided by a deep natural cleft, the chief figure in the upper part appears to be the giant Rájá Mahá Bali Chakrabartti, with his attendant dwarfs, five Rájás with their wives, four warriors, five ascetics, and a holy Rishi in his cave temple. The lions, tigers, cheetahs, and deer, in different parts of the sculpture, show that the people have travelled from a distance through the jungles. In the central part of the cleft, at the bottom, on the left, is a figure seated, which I take to be Buddha, with his five disciples in front of the cave temple, with the holy Rishi. The heads of three of the disciples have been broken off. . . . In the deep recess formed by the natural cleft in the centre of the rock sculpture, is the lower part of the body and tail of the snake deity Vasuki, the Nágá Rájá, and below this is the entire figure of Ulupi, his daughter, with a canopy of three snakes rising over the head. The upper portion of the Nágá deity had been broken off, and was said to be buried in front of the sculptures. I made search for it, found it, and got it dug up, set upright, and photographed; it is the figure of a man with his hands raised in prayer, and a canopy of seven snakes rising over a pyramidal head-dress, and with the usual emblems of the Buddhist religion. To the right of these are several Rájás and men, each accompanied by his wife; six dwarfs; and eight Barudas, or figures of men and women with the legs of birds; several monkeys; a cat doing penance, while rats are running near it; two large and several small elephants; lions, tigers, geese,

cocks, and hens. I thought at first that all the figures were coming to do reverence or to worship the snake deity; but when we first took photographs of this rock sculpture, the whole of the central cleft was overgrown with trees and brushwood, and the five disciples of Buddha were buried. Lord Napier, then Governor of Madras, visited the spot about a week after the snake deity was dug up, and had excavations made to the depth of 7 or 8 feet, which exposed a great number of figures and animals, and showed that the old road must have passed in front of the rock at a depth of 5 or 6 feet below the present level, the ground having been filled up chiefly with broken bricks and earth, with here and there large fragments of sculptured rocks, dressed stones, and cornices from the adjoining temples. The broken tusk of the large elephant was also found. To the left, and below the five disciples of Buddha, is a deer, in a very natural attitude, scratching its nose with its hind foot. The male and female elephants with their young behind them, and some of the figures of crouching tigers and cheetahs, are in a very natural and spirited style; and there is a great look of natural animation, movement, and bustle in the whole group, of which Buddha and his five disciples appear to occupy the principal position and to attract the greatest attention, while the snake deity and his daughter are, as it were, in the background, and ascetics are scattered about in several parts. . . . One point of great importance in these early large rock sculptures is, that they represent scenes of peace with men and their wives, a single wife accompanying each, and the animals, Barudas, and birds in pairs, while the Rájá Mahábali is accompanied by dwarfs, and the other Rájás, whose rank is indicated by umbrella-bearers, have each his wife beside him. The ascetics, of whom there are five or six, have no wife. It appears to me that the story is one which represents the establishment of the Buddhist religion, or one of peace, goodwill, toleration, and kindness to all men, and to animals and birds.' Mr. Fergusson declared it to be, with the exception of the pagoda at Tanjore, the finest and most important *vimana* in the south of India. It is small, being not more than 30 feet square at base, and 60 feet high; but it is free from all surrounding walls and gateways, which so detract from the grandeur of other pagodas. The same authority assigns the edifice to the 11th century, and the neighbouring excavations to the 13th or 14th. It is to be regretted that the inscriptions, as yet deciphered, furnish no clue to the date or history of these remarkable structures; though Dr. Babington explains one line as conveying the name of the founder, 'Atirana Chánda (he who in battle is furious), Lord of kings, built this place called Atiranachandeshwara.' It is equally a matter of doubt to what deity the sea-side pagoda was originally dedicated. In the chamber next the sea is a gigantic *lingam* of black polished stone, which would lead us to suppose it a temple of

Siva. On the other hand, there is a gigantic figure of Vishnu, in a recumbent posture, in one of the verandahs. The uncertainty on all these points may, perhaps, heighten the zest of inspection.

Mahában.—Central southern *tahsíl* of Muttra (Mathurá) District, North-Western Provinces; lying wholly within the Doáb, and consisting for the most part of a fertile alluvial plain along the north bank of the Jumna (Jamuná). Area, 237 square miles, of which 190 are cultivated. Pop. (1872), 143,955; land revenue, £28,882; total Government revenue, £32,065; rental paid by cultivators, £43,614; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 3s. 9⅝d.

Mahában.—Ancient town in Muttra (Mathurá) District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl*. Pop. (1872), 6930, consisting of 5330 Hindus and 1600 Muhammadans. Situated in lat. 27° 25′ 35″ N., and long. 77° 47′ 30″ E., on the left bank of the Jumna (Jamuná), 6 miles south-east of Muttra, on the Etáwah road. Formerly a place of great importance, and famous for its connection with Hindu mythology, being the reputed birthplace of Krishna, who is supposed to have been reared at Gokul, 1 mile to the west. Mahmúd of Ghazní conquered the Rájá in 1017, and the town was sacked, after the native prince had slain his wife and children and then committed suicide. A hill, extending over 30 acres, occupies a large part of the town. On its summit stands a ruined fort of great antiquity, containing a shrine of Syám Lála. The building known as Nandá's palace or the Assi-Khamba, consists of a large hall, divided into four aisles by five rows of early Hindu pillars, and probably dates back to the period before the Ghaznivide invasion. In 1804, Jaswant Ráo Holkar fled from the Doáb, after his defeat at Farrukhábád, by a ford a little west of Mahában; and again in 1805, Amír Khán, the Pathán freebooter, crossed and recrossed the Jumna by the same route.

Mahában ('*Great Forest*'). — Hill in Yagistán, on the Punjab frontier, at the east end of a spur of the Ilam range. It is situated on the right bank of the Indus, and rises to a height of 7400 feet above the sea. The southern side of the hill is thickly wooded (whence its name), and is inhabited by Jáduns; the north side is peopled by the Amazais. The hill would be suitable for a sanitarium, but as a strategical point it is said to be worse than useless.

Mahábar.—Range of hills in Hazáribágh District, Bengal, comprising the feeders of the Sakri river on the west. These hills extend in a general direction east and west for 14 miles; their sides are steep, but not entirely scarped; the top undulates with an average breadth of about a mile. The general elevation above the Sakri valley is 1600 feet, and its elevation above the sea at the eastern end, where the Survey station is fixed, 2210 feet. A waterfall, called Kokalhát (90 feet high), falls on the northern face of the range in

Gayá District. An annual fair is held in February at this picturesque spot.

Mahád.—Chief town of the Mahád Subdivision of Kolába District, Bombay; situated 53 miles south by east of Alíbágh, in lat. 18° 5′ N., and long. 73° 28′ E. Pop. (1872), 6631. Mahád is a municipality, with an annual income of £300. Sub-judge's court, post office, and dispensary.

Mahádánapuram.—Town in Trichinopoli District, Madras. Pop. (1871), 6016.

Mahádeo.—River in the Gáro Hills District, Assam; in the bed of which a seam of good coal has been discovered. In its upper course there are several picturesque gorges, where the rocky cliffs are clothed with tropical vegetation.

Mahádeopahár.—Group of hills in Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces; isolated from the main Sátpurá range by scarps and precipitous ravines, and almost encircled by the Denwá and Sonbhadra rivers, which rise in the valley to the south, and unite on the northern side. In these hills, the 'Mahádeo sandstone' attains its greatest development. On their southern face, where the hills rise in vertical escarpments from the Denwá valley, the sandstone mass presents a thickness of 2000 feet. On the north, the ascent is about 12 miles long, by a gentle and easy slope. It will be practicable even for wheeled carts on the completion of the road now under construction, which runs direct from the plateau to the Bánkheri railway station, about 22 miles distant from the foot of the mountain. The plateau is varied, like a park, with glades and clumps of trees; while a stream winds down nearly its whole length, and a rim of low rocks shelters it from the winds and storms.

Mahádewa.—*Parganá* of Gonda District, Oudh; bounded on the north by *parganá* Gonda, on the east by Nawábganj, on the south by Nawábganj and Digsár, and on the west by Digsár and Gonda. Area, 89 square miles, or 58,154 acres, of which 29,810 acres are returned as under cultivation and 21,290 as still available for tillage; pop. (1869), 48,166, of whom 10,026 are Bráhmans. The land, however, is principally in the possession of Kshattriyas, who hold 216 out of the 311 villages and coparcenery estates which comprise the *parganá*. Government revenue demand, £4920.

Mahágáon.—Small chiefship on the southern boundary of Bhandára District, Central Provinces, comprising 14 villages; area, 31 square miles, of which about a tenth part is cultivated. The forests yield much valuable timber, chiefly teak and *sáj*; and the ample pasturage attracts large numbers of cattle during the hot months. Mahágáon (lat. 20° 44′ N., long. 80° 5′ E.), the only large village, where the chief, who is a Rájput, resides, has a Government village school, and contains

the ruins of an ancient fort. The famous hill fortress of Pratápgarh overlooks the village, though beyond its limits.

Mahákálídurga (*'Rock of the Great Goddess Káli'*).—Hill in Túmkúr District, Mysore; 3610 feet above sea level. Lat. 13° 26′ N., long. 77° 34′ E. Crowned with old fortifications.

Mahálingpur.—Town in the Mudhol State, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 16° 23′ 20″ N., long. 75° 8′ 50″ E.; pop. (1872), 6902.

Mahámuní.—Buddhist temple in Chittagong District, Bengal; resorted to annually in April, on the festival of *Bishu*, by the Khyoungthá or Júmiá Maghs and Chakmás (tribes inhabiting the Hill Tracts of Chittagong), to feast and make offerings at the shrine.

Ma-ha-mú-ní.—Pagoda in Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 20° 52′ 40″ N., and long. 93° 5′ 30″ E., to the north-east of Mro-houng or Old Arakan. This edifice, once of great celebrity, and still visited by numerous pilgrims, enshrined formerly an image of Gautama Buddha, whose traditional visits to Burma must be rejected as fabulous. According to sacred histories, Buddha, at the request of Tsan-da-thú-rie-ya (a monarch who ascended the Burmese throne in 146 A.D.), consented to the construction of a colossal metal statue of himself, on which he breathed seven times, saying: 'My younger brother, Ma-ha-mú-ní, you remain here to be worshipped by human beings, Nat and Bramha.' A temple was built on the Kyouk-taw-hill to contain the image, and here it remained—the Palladium of Arakan—till the conquest of the country by the Burmese in 1784, when it was carried to Amarapura. There it was placed in a building called the Maha-myat-mú-ní, which became the most popular place of worship in the neighbourhood. The image is in the usual sitting attitude on a 'Radza-pal-leng,' or throne used by the king in the State audience hall. The figure is 12 feet high, with all the limbs in proportion, and is thickly encrusted with gold leaf, the accumulated offerings of thousands of votaries. The desire to possess the Ma-ha-mú-ní image was one of the causes of the war, which ended in the subjugation of Arakan by the Burmese. An ancient metal bell belonging to this pagoda was kept for many years in front of the court-house at Akyab, but it has since been restored to its original place.

Mahánadi.—Literally 'the Great River;' rises in lat. 20° 10′ N., and long. 82° E., in Ráipur District, and after a course of 520 miles through the Central Provinces and Tributary States of Orissa, falls into the Bay of Bengal. The Mahánadi has an estimated catchment basin of 43,800 square miles, and its rapid flow renders its maximum discharge in time of flood second to that of no other river in India. Thus the Ganges, with an estimated catchment basin of 391,100 square miles, has a maximum flood discharge of 1,800,000 cubic feet per second;

while the estimated discharge of the Mississippi is only 1,500,000. The Mahánadi, with its comparatively smaller catchment area, has a flood discharge of 1,800,000 cubic feet per second. Its depth increases by 32 feet during the flood season; in the dry weather, its discharge dwindles to 1125 cubic feet per second, while the least discharge of the Ganges is estimated at 45,000 feet.

The Course of the River.—The Mahánadi rises 25 miles south of Ráipur in the wild mountainous region which bounds the Chhatísgarh plateau on the south, and which divides it from the Bastar country. Until it reaches Seorínaráyan, it is an insignificant stream, rarely available for boats; but at this point it is joined by three affluents,—the Seonát or Seo river, the Jonk, and the Hasdú. After passing the town of Malhar, the Mahánadi becomes navigable during the greater part of the year, and receives the Mánd and Kelú rivers from the north. Near Padmapur, the Mahánadi is split up by vast rocks, and rendered almost unnavigable. After receiving the Ib, it again struggles through masses of rock till it reaches Sambalpur, and lower down receives the Tel at Sonpur. Below Sonpur, the Mahánadi forces its tortuous way between ridges and ledges, broken up by rocks for many miles until it reaches Dholpur in the Tributary States of Orissa. From this point its troubles from the rocks are at an end, and it rolls its unrestrained waters straight for the outermost line of the Gháts. This mountain line it pierces by a gorge about 40 miles in length, overlooked by hills, shaded by forests on either side, deep and tranquil, and navigable at all seasons.

Having thus passed in a generally eastern direction through the Central Provinces and the Tributary States, it pours down upon the Orissa Delta through its narrow gorge at Naráj, about 7 miles west of the town of Cuttack. After traversing the District from west to east, and throwing off numerous branches, it falls into the Bay of Bengal by several channels at FALSE POINT. The principal offshoots of the Mahánadi, together with their minor distributaries, are as follow:—On the right or south bank, the Great River, soon after entering the Cuttack District, throws off a large stream—(1) the KATJURI, which immediately divides into two, of which the southern branch, under the name of the KOYAKHAI, passes into Purí District. The Kátjurí, after a further short course, throws off the Suruá, which re-unites with the parent stream after a course of a few miles. A little lower down, the Kátjurí throws off two minor distributaries from its right bank, the Large and Little Deví, which unite after a southerly course of about 20 miles; and under the name of the DEVI, the combined stream passes into Purí District, and falls into the Bay of Bengal a few miles below the southern boundary of Cuttack. A cross stream connects the Mahánadi with the left bank of the Kátjurí, which latter river

ultimately falls into the Bay of Bengal, under the name of the JOTDAR. (2) The only other important southern distributary of the Mahánadi is the PAIKA, which branches off from the parent stream 10 miles below Cuttack town, and rejoins it again after a course of about 12 miles. The offshoots from the left or north bank of the Mahánadi are the following:—(3) The BIRUPA takes off from the Mahánadi opposite the town of Cuttack; and after flowing in a north-easterly direction for about 15 miles nearly parallel with the Calcutta road, it throws off the Gengutí from its right bank, which, after receiving the waters of the Kelo, again falls into the Birúpá. The latter river afterwards joins the Bráhmaní, and its waters ultimately find their way into the Bay of Bengal by the Dhámrá estuary. (4) The CHITARTALA branch of the Mahánadi leaves the parent stream about 10 miles below the Birúpá mouth. After flowing a few miles, the Chitartalá bifurcates into the Chitartalá and the Nún. These streams unite after a course of about 20 miles, and, under the name of the NUN, the united waters fall into the Mahánadi estuary a few miles from the coast, and so into the Bay of Bengal. After a variety of interlacings, the Mahánadi forms two great estuaries, one generally known as the Deví, with its connected channel, the Jotdár, in the south-eastern corner of the District; the other, bearing the name of the parent river, the Mahánadi, at False Point, about half-way down the coast.

Floods.—In 1858, Captain Harris, after a series of most careful investigations, arrived at the following conclusions with regard to the Mahánadi. During high floods, 1,800,000 cubic feet of water pour every second through the Naráj gorge, 7 miles above Cuttack city, while the total distributaries and channels, half-way between that point and the Bay of Bengal, only afford accommodation for 897,449 cubic feet, or less than one-half. During time of flood, about 250,000 cubic feet per second, or from one-seventh to one-eighth of the total, strikes into Purí District by means of the Koyákhái. The remaining six-sevenths, or, in round numbers, a million and a half of cubic feet, pour every second, through the Kátjurí, Birúpá, and Mahánadi proper, into Cuttack District. To get rid of this vast volume of water, the Purí rivers have only the means of carrying off 111,755 cubic feet per second, while all the distributaries in Cuttack District can only dispose of 788,694 cubic feet. The remaining 900,000 cubic feet of its maximum flood discharge—that is to say, about one-half—pours over the delta, filling the swamps, inundating the rice-fields, and converting the plains into a boundless sea. This, of course, only takes place in seasons of unusual floods, when the elaborate embankments along the lines of the Mahánadi and its distributaries prove altogether unable to control their violence.

Canal System.—Efforts have been made to husband and utilize the

vast water supply thus thrown down on the Orissa Delta. An elaborate system of canals starts from the Mahánadi with the design, in the first place, to regulate the water supply for irrigation; and secondly, to utilize it for navigation and commerce. From the point at which the Mahánadi pours through the Naráj gorge upon the plains, the fall averages 18 inches per mile across the delta to the sea. In the Godávari District in Madras, the slope is said by the engineers to be only about 1 foot per mile; but the fall in Orissa, as also in the case of the Godávari, is easily overcome by locks. The first thing to be effected was to secure a uniform and a trustworthy supply at the head of the delta. To this end, a massive masonry weir 3000 feet long has been erected across the mouth of the Kátjurí, the southern bifurcation of the Mahánadi; another enormous weir, 6400 feet long, across the Mahánadi proper at Jobrá; and a third, 1980 feet long, across the Birúpá at Chaudwár. The first two of these weirs are 12½ feet, and the third 9 feet high. Each of the three branches into which the parent stream splits at the delta head is, therefore, regulated by a weir. These works are pierced with two sets of scouring sluices, one of which is on an improved self-raising principle. Their objects being to prevent the accumulation of sand in the river bed, and to secure a supply of water for the canals, the sluices are left open during the flood season, and closed as the river subsides. Of the four canals which form the Orissa irrigation system, two take off from the Birúpá weir, and one, with its branch, from the Mahánadi weir. On the 31st December 1868, the Government took over the whole canal works from the East Indian Irrigation Company at a cost of £941,368, since which time the gradual prosecution of the Orissa scheme to completion has been sanctioned. On the 31st March 1871, the capital account, including the original price paid to the Company, amounted to £1,274,822; and four years later, on the 31st March 1875, to £1,551,951, exclusive of interest. The canals thus taken over from the Company, and since completed, or carried to an advanced stage of construction, are four in number, viz. (1) The High-Level Canal, (2) the Kendrápárá Canal, (3) the Táldandá Canal, and (4) the Máchhgáon Canal, with their respective distributaries.

The High-Level Canal was designed to provide a navigable trade-route between Cuttack and Calcutta, and also to irrigate the country through which it passes. It starts from above the left flank of the weir across the Birúpá, 1 mile below the departure of that river from the main stream of the Mahánadi. It runs thence along the foot of the hills, northwards through Cuttack and Balasor Districts; and, as originally intended, was to have been carried across the Bengal District of Midnapur, till it debouched on the Húglí river at Ulubáriá, below Calcutta—a total distance from its starting-point of 230 miles. The

section between Midnapur town and Ulubáriá, 53 miles in length, was opened throughout for traffic in 1873; but this is now regarded as an independent work, distinct from the Orissa canal system.

General View of the Orissa Canals.—While, therefore, the now completed portion of the High-Level Canal starts northward from the Birúpá, and provides a navigable channel between that river and the Bráhmaní, with irrigation for the upland country along the foot of the hills, the Kendrápára Canal proceeds due east along the high banks of the Chitartalá, etc., and supplies water to the lower level of the delta. It irrigates the southern edge of the tract between the Mahánadi (with its subsequent distributaries, the Chitartalá and the Nún) and the Birúpá (with its continuation the Bráhmaní). The Táldandá and the Máchhgáon Canals will deal with that part of the delta which lies between the Mahánadi and the Kátjurí; the Táldandá Canal supplying the irrigation for the northern edge of this intermediate tract, and the Máchhgáon Canal providing for the southern edge. All the canals keep on high levels. In the case of the High-Level Canal, the channel runs along the uplands at the foot of the hills. In the case of the other three, which are strictly speaking delta canals, the requisite elevation is obtained by keeping their courses along the banks of the rivers, which are always higher than the intermediate alluvial tracts.

Irrigation Capabilities.—The Orissa canals, when completed, are designed to irrigate a total of 1,600,000 acres. The people, however, are slow and averse to change; and hitherto, even the present available supply is out of all proportion to the demand, and there is a disposition only to resort to irrigation for ordinary crops when the rainfall fails. The Orissa cultivator has been accustomed to use irrigation only for the more costly sort of crops, such as *pán*-leaf, sugar-cane, tobacco, and cotton. For such crops, a field is generally selected which has the command of a natural water-course; and the highest form of irrigation known in Orissa consists in throwing water, by means of hollow palm-trees or basket scoops, from a tank or dammed-up stream, on to the fields. The East Indian Irrigation Company fixed the rates for supplying water at Rs. 5 or 10s. an acre. This rate proved to be too high, and a graduated scale was afterwards introduced, by which leases for large areas were offered at reduced rates. Even this failed to induce cultivators to buy the water; and a further concession was made, by which the separate husbandmen in a village might combine to take a general lease from their aggregate lands at the reduced rates. Much confusion and many abuses followed, and practically the Company's rates were reduced to a uniform charge of Rs. 2. 8 or 5s. an acre. The first year in which the cultivators availed themselves of canal irrigation was 1866-67, when leases were executed for 667 acres at a total charge of £252. Of this, however, only £62 could be col-

lected, and the rest had to be written off as a bad debt. Next year, 1867-68, leases were executed for 1842 acres, at an aggregate charge of £366; but only £175 could be collected, and the balance had again to be written off. The remissions of these two years were rendered necessary partly by the unfinished state of the works, which disabled the Company from performing its share of the contract; partly by the inexperience of the Government officers; and partly by disputes on the part of the cultivators touching the validity of the leases. A large area was irrigated by stealth, and the smallness of the returns was chiefly owing to the difficulties incident to introducing anything new into Orissa. In 1868-69, a drought at the end of the rains awoke the fears of the husbandmen, and water was taken for 9378 acres at an aggregate charge of £2288. The popular apprehensions culminated in a panic; and the demand for water became so urgent that it was found impossible to comply with the usual forms, and irrigation was granted in many cases without leases. In others, the husbandmen appropriated the water wholesale on their own account. However, after some opposition, the land which had actually received water was measured, and the people paid on the whole very fairly for what they took. In the following year, 1870-71, a long-protracted drought again roused the cultivators to the folly of neglecting irrigation. Until far on in October, it seemed that another famine in Orissa was inevitable. Still, the rate of Rs. 2. 8 or 5s. an acre proved too high; and it was not till the Commissioner, Mr. Ravenshaw, by insisting upon the terrible risks that the Province ran, induced Government to temporarily bring down the rate of R. 1 or 2s. an acre, that water was taken on a great scale. Between 98,000 and 100,000 acres were immediately put under irrigation in Orissa and Midnapur; and even this amount of land, although insignificant compared with the future capabilities of the canal, would have sufficed to take the extreme edge off a famine. But even this lesson failed to induce the cultivators to accept the canal water on a great scale. During the years which have since followed, some progress has been made, and additional facilities have been given to the husbandmen. The Orissa canals, however, cannot yet be considered as a paying enterprise, although they furnish an important guarantee against the famines, which, as recently as 1866, desolated the Province.

Financial Aspects.—The following table exhibits the receipts from, and expenses connected with, the Orissa canals for each of the four years ending 1874-75. This table shows that during these four years the total receipts from all sources amounted to £17,288; and the total charges, including interest on invested capital, to £307,424, leaving a deficiency of £290,136, or an average of £72,534 a year. Excluding interest, however, which amounts to an average of £57,117 a year, the

excess of charges for maintenance and establishment over the total receipts during the four years amounted to £61,667, or to an average of £15,417 a year. The total capital expended on the Orissa canals during the four years amounted to £536,539, or an average of £134,135 a year.

FINANCIAL STATISTICS OF THE ORISSA CANALS FOR THE YEARS 1871-72 TO 1874-75.

Year.	Receipts.			Expenditure.			Deficiency.	Capital Expended during the Year.
	Irrigation Assessments.	Navigation Tolls.	Total.	Charges of Maintenance and Establishment.	Interest on Capital at 4½ per cent.	Total.		
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1871-72,	2,908	1,487	4,395	22,594	46,699	69,293	64,898	89,604
1872-73,	2,658	1,004	3,662	23,800	56,413	80,213	76,551	116,621
1873-74,	2,526	1,857	4,383	12,919	58,906	71,825	67,442	169,759
1874-75,	2,707	2,141	4,848	19,642	66,451	86,093	81,245	160,555
Total,	10,799	6,489	17,288	78,955	228,469	307,424	290,136	536,539

The total amount of capital invested in the Orissa canals up to the 31st March 1875 amounted to £1,551,951, exclusive of interest. The total financial deficit on these canals, from the time of their first opening till the 31st March 1875, is as follows :—Excess of current charges over receipts, £66,683 ; interest, £293,247 ; grand total, £359,930.

With reference to the future prospects of this and other irrigation schemes now in course of construction in Bengal, it may be well to quote here a few sentences from the Bengal Administration Report for 1871-72. In closing a review of the past history of irrigation in Bengal, the Lieutenant-Governor remarked as follows:—'If its progress has been slow and the financial results unsatisfactory, there is, it is hoped, less reason for extreme discouragement than might at first sight appear. The amount of capital sunk in the expensive head-works and great lines of canal has been out of all proportion to the area as yet irrigable, which will be largely increased at a comparatively small expenditure on the minor distributaries. The area commanded by the water will henceforth develop in a much higher ratio to the expenditure. The difficulties presented by the prejudices and ignorance of the cultivators have been aggravated by a defective system of revenue administration, which was in many respects calculated to check rather than to promote progress. The first essentials of financial success — moderation and fixity of demand—were wanting; and while ample facilities for illicit

irrigation and evasion of the just dues of the State were afforded to the *rayat*, he had no protection against unfair or illegal assessment. From the new system better results may be anticipated, though the progress of irrigation will probably still be slow, and the time when the canals shall prove directly remunerative may be far distant.'

Physical Action of the River.—The Mahánadi has been a principal factor in the formation of the Orissa Delta. The Great River poured itself through a region, half-mud, half-water, and all jungle, into the Bay of Bengal. The shallowest parts were swamps, the deepest parts were brackish lakes; and from time to time the river writhed itself out of its former bed into new channels, twisting backwards and forwards over the delta in snake-like convolutions, turning fens into deep lakes, silting up inland seas into shallow marshes, toiling slowly and ceaselessly, till the firm earth stood up out of the waters, ready for man.

Mahánadi.—River rising in Daspallá State, Orissa, and joining the Rushikúliyá at Aska in Ganjám District, Madras. On its banks are Russellkonda and Gúmsúr.—*See* RUSHIKULIYA.

Mahánadi, Little.—River, rising in Mandla District, Central Provinces, in lat. 23° 6′ N., long. 80° 41′ E., and falling into the Són after a course of about 100 miles, during part of which it forms the boundary between Rewah and Jabalpur. *Sál* forests clothe both sides of the river; and coal is found on its banks near Deorí, where there is also a warm spring.

Mahánandá.—River of Bengal; rising in Maháldirám, a hill in the Himálayan range, Dárjíling District, Bengal; and forming the boundary line between the *tarái* and the bordering District of Jalpáigurí to Phánsidevá, in the extreme south-east of Dárjíling. The Mahánandá touches upon Jalpáigurí District a short distance above Siligurí, at which place it receives the waters of the New Bálasán on its right or east bank, whence it flows southwards as far as Titályá, where it passes into Purniah District. Its chief tributaries here are the Dánk, Pitánú, Nágar, Mechí, and Kankái; the principal marts are Káliáganj, Haldíbárí, Krishnaganj, and Barsoi. After a tortuous course through Purniah, the Mahánandá then enters Maldah at its extreme north, and flows south-eastwards, dividing the District into two nearly equal portions; it receives as affluents the Tángan, Purnabhaba, and Kálindrí, and is nowhere fordable in this portion of its course. Eventually it falls into the Ganges or Padmá in lat. 24° 28′ 30″ N., and long. 88° 20′ 30″ E., at the southernmost corner of Maldah District, just above the police station of Godágárí in Rájsháhí District. It is a wide and deep stream, and easily navigable by cargo-boats of from 15 to 20 tons burthen as high up as Káliáganj in Purniah. In the upper part of its course, it flows with a very rapid current, and is subject to sudden and heavy freshes, which render navigation impracticable. The

banks of the Mahánandá are, as a rule, sloping, and in parts highly cultivated.

Mahárájganj (or *Basnauli Gangar*).—Town situated in lat. 26° 6′ 35″ N., and long. 84° 2′ 36″ E., in the centre of Sáran District, Bengal; 25 miles north-west of Chhaprá, and 10 miles south-east of Sewán. Next to Revelganj or Godna, the largest *bázár* in the District, especially for the export of grain and spices; imports of English and native iron, salt, and piece-goods. Formerly a large saltpetre depôt. During the rains, the grain traffic is almost entirely suspended, owing to the want of riverways and the absence of suitable roads. Police outpost.

Mahárájganj.—Town and mart in Patná District, Bengal. One of the large business quarters of Patná city; trade in the produce of Patná, Gayá, and Sháhábád Districts—food grains and oil-seeds.

Mahárájganj. — Northern *tahsíl* of Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a *tarái* or submontane forest belt, inhabited by Gúrkhas, Nepálís, or Thárus, the only people who can live in its pestilential climate during the rainy season. Area, 1374 square miles, of which 622 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 355,504; land revenue, £28,396; total Government revenue, £30,928; rental paid by cultivators, £77,748; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 7¾d.

Mahárájganj.—Town in Unao District, Oudh.—*See* NEWALGANJ.

Mahárájnagar.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh; situated 16 miles east of Sítápur town, on the road to Láhárpur and Kheri. Founded by Musalmáns, and originally called Islámnagar; but about five generations ago, one Rájá Tej Sinh, a Gaur Kshattriya, seized it, and changed its name to Mahárájnagar. The land is still owned by Gaurs. Pop. (1869), 2003, principally Hindus. Bi-weekly market for the sale of locally manufactured sugar and cotton rope. Government school.

Mahárájpur.—Large village in Mandla District, Central Provinces; situated opposite to Mandla, in lat. 22° 35′ N., and long. 80° 24′ E., at the confluence of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) and Banjar. Formerly called Brahmaputra, it derives its present name from Rájá Maháráj Sah, who founded the present village in 1737. It has a good school; and on the opposite bank of the Banjar, at the village of Purwá, a yearly fair takes place.

Mahárájpur.—Village in the Santál Parganás, Bengal, and station on the loop-line of the East India Railway, 210 miles from Calcutta. Lat. 25° 11′ 45″ N., long. 87° 47′ E.

Mahárájpur.—Village in Gwalior State, Central India; situated in lat. 26° 29′ N., and long. 78° 5′ E. (Thornton), 15 miles north-west of Gwalior fort. Noteworthy as the scene of a victory over the Marhattá forces by the British under Sir Hugh Gough (29th Dec. 1843). The Marhattás were utterly routed, losing 56 guns and all their ammunition waggons; and retreated to the fort of Gwalior. A monument at Cal-

cutta, constructed from the metal of the captured cannon, commemorates the victory.—*See also* GWALIOR.

Mahâram.—Democratic State in the Khási Hills, Assam. Pop. (1872), 6157; revenue, £104. The presiding chief, whose title is *Siem*, is named Andar Sinh. The natural products include *tezpát* or bay-leaves, black pepper, cinnamon, caoutchouc, and honey. Limestone is quarried, and iron-ore is manufactured into implements of native use.

Mahâráshtra.—One of the nine kingdoms of Southern India in the time of Hiouen Thsang, the Chinese Pilgrim (640 A.D.). The following account is from General Cunningham's *Ancient Geography of India* (pp. 553 *sqq.*):—

'From Konkana, the pilgrim proceeded to the north-west for 2400 to 2500 *li*, or upwards of 400 miles, to Mo-ho-la-cha or Maháráshtra. The capital was 30 *li* or 5 miles in circuit, and on the west side touched a large river. From this description alone I should be inclined to adopt Paithán or Pratishthána, on the Godávari, as the capital of Maháráshtra in the 7th century. It is mentioned by Ptolemy as Baithana, and by the author of the *Periplus* as Plithána, which should no doubt be corrected to Paithána.

'But the subsequent distance of 1000 *li*, or 167 miles, westward or north-westward to Bhároch is much too small, as the actual distance between Paithan and Bhároch is not less than 250 miles. M. Vivien Le Saint-Martin thinks that Devagiri accords better with the position indicated; but Devagiri is not situated on any river, and its distance from Bhároch is about 200 miles. I think it more probable that Kalyáni is the place intended, as we know that it was the ancient capital of the Chálukya dynasty. Its position also agrees better with both of Hiouen Thsang's distances, as it is about 400 miles to the north-west of Anagundi, and 180 or 190 miles to the south of Bhároch. To the west of the city also flows the Kailás river, which at this point is a large stream. Kalyán or Kalyáni is mentioned by Kosmas Indikopleustes, in the 6th century, as the seat of a Christian bishopric, under the name of Kalliana; and by the author of the *Periplus*, in the 2d century, as Kalliena, which had been a famous emporium in the time of Saraganos the elder. The name of Kalyána also occurs several times in the Kánhari cave inscriptions, which date from the 1st and 2nd centuries of the Christian era.

'The circuit of the Province is said to be 6000 *li*, or 1000 miles, which agrees with the dimensions of the tract remaining unassigned between Málwá on the north, Kosala and Andhra on the east, Konkana on the south, and the sea on the west. The limiting points of this tract are Dámán and Vingorla on the sea-coast, and Idalábád and Haidarábád inland, which give a circuit of rather more than 1000 miles.

'On the eastern frontier of the kingdom there was a great mountain with ridges rising one over another, and scarped crests. In former days, the Arhat Achára had built a monastery, with rooms excavated in the rock, and a front of two storeys in height facing a sombre valley. The *vihár* attached to it was 100 feet in height; and in the midst of the monastery there was a stone statue of Buddha about 70 feet high, which was surmounted by 7 stone caps suspended in the air without any apparent support. The walls of the *vihár* were divided all round into panels, in which were sculptured with minute detail all the great events of Buddha's life. Outside the north and south gates of the monastery there were stone elephants, both on the right hand and on the left, which, according to the belief of the people, occasionally roared so loudly as to make the earth quake. The description of the hill is too vague to be of much use in identifying its position; but if the easterly bearing is correct, the hill of Ajayanti is most probably the place intended, as its bluff ridges appear to answer better to the pilgrim's account than the smoother slopes of Ellore (Elura). But with the exception of the stone elephants, the account is too vague to enable us to identify the place with any certainty. There are two stone elephants outside the Kailás excavation at Ellore, but that is a Bráhmanical temple, and not a Buddhist *vihár*. There is also an elephant close to the Indrasabha at Ellore; but the animal is inside the courtyard, instead of outside the gate as described by the pilgrim. Scenes from Buddha's life formed the common subjects of Buddhist sculpture, and would therefore offer no special assistance towards the identification of the monastery. But though the pilgrim's account is vague, it is so minute as to the positions of the elephants and the arrangement of the sculptures that I am inclined to think he must have seen the place himself. In this case I would read "western" frontier of the kingdom, and identify his cave monastery with the well-known excavations of Kánhari in the island of Salsette. Indeed, if I am correct in the identification of Kalyáni as the capital of Maháráshtra in the 7th century, it is almost certain that the pilgrim must have visited the Buddhist establishments at Kánhari, which are not more than 25 miles distant from Kalyáni. The numerous inscriptions at Kánhari show that some of its excavations must date as early as the 1st century before Christ, and the bulk of them during the 1st and 2nd centuries after Christ. One of the inscriptions is dated in the year 30 of the Sakádityakál, or 108 A.D. No remains of stone elephants have yet been found at Kánhari; but as the structural façades in front of the excavated *vihárs* have all fallen down, some elephant torsos may yet be discovered amongst the ruins along the foot of the scarped rock. Mr. E. West has already disinterred the remains of a stone stupa with all its sculptured friezes from amongst these ruins, and further research will no doubt bring to light many other interesting remains.'

Mahásthángarh.—Ancient shrine and scene of a fair in Bográ District, Bengal; situated in lat. 24° 56′ 40″ N., and long. 89° 24′ E., 7 miles north of the civil station of Bográ. The traditional capital of a monarch, Parasurám, who ruled over 22 feudatory princes; and identified by the Bráhmans with the sixth incarnation of Vishnu. The common people assign a much later date to this Parasurám of Mahásthángarh, and say that he was destroyed by a Muhammadan saint, named Sháh Sultán Hazrat Auliyá. The place accordingly forms a nucleus around which many legends of both Hindu and Musalmán origin have gathered. Numerous remains connected with the two religions mark its site, and it was for long a Muhammadan shrine of great sanctity. An ancient grant of 650 acres from the Delhi Emperor, subsequently confirmed by the Governor of Dacca in 1666, still supports a fraternity of *fakírs*. Resumption proceedings, instituted by Government in 1836, were abandoned in 1844 on proof of the great antiquity of the grant. A fair held in April also yields about £60 to the shrine. Coins, dating as far back as 1448 A.D., have been discovered on the spot, and it affords a promising site for excavations. In the local traditions, the oldest fables of Hindu mythology are confused with comparatively recent events in the Muhammadan conquest of Bengal.—(For details, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. viii. pp. 192-196.)

Mahásu.—Mountain in Keunthál State, Punjab; one of the peaks in the Sub-Himálayan range. Lat. 31° 6′ N., long. 77° 20′ E. On the summit stands a small temple of Chinese architecture, dedicated to Siva. Elevation above sea level, 9140 feet.

Ma-ha-tha-man.—Township in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 670 square miles. Bounded north by Thayet District; and east, south, and west by the Shwe-lay, Poung-day, and Shwe-doung townships respectively. The north and north-east portions are undulating, and are covered with valuable forest. Farther to the west, the country is to a great extent level and under cultivation, while a considerable tract stretching to the south is waste land. This tract skirts the hills forming the boundary between Ma-ha-tha-man and Shwe-doung townships. South of Prome, it is confined on the west by undulating ground gradually passing into low hills covered with *eng* forest, and extending southwards for many miles. On the east, the lower spurs of the Yoma Hills bound it; while the centre of the plain is drained by the Zay, the head-waters of the Myit-ma-kha, which receives all the water from the hilly country east and west. On the hills to the north-east and north, cotton is largely cultivated. There are two separate systems of drainage, one in the north connected with the Irawadi, and one in the south connected with the Hlaing or Rangoon river through the Zay and Myit-ma-kha. The chief streams falling into

the Irawadi are the North and South Na-weng, with their tributaries, the Gway, Ien-gún, and Khyoung-tsouk, all of which latter are unnavigable. The Great Northern Road from Rangoon runs through this township for a short distance, just south of Prome; there are fair-weather roads in all portions. The principal villages are Lek-khúp-peng, A-lo-daw-ra, and Dha-kú. Four or five miles east of Prome is the ruined site of the great Tha-re-khet-ta-ra or Ya-thay-myo, once the capital of the flourishing kingdom of Prome, whose sovereign ruled (*circa* 100 A.D.) over the whole valley of the Irawadi. This township is now divided into 50 revenue circles. The chief manufactures are cutch and *tari* (toddy) sugar. Pop. (1877), 52,360; gross revenue, £11,604.

Mahatpur. — Municipal town in Jalandhar (Jullundur) District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 3′ N., long. 75° 31′ E.; pop. (1868), 6374, consisting of 2366 Hindus, 3956 Muhammadans, and 52 Síkhs. Reputed of great antiquity, but now unimportant politically or commercially, except as a local agricultural centre. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £88, or 3¼d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Mahatwar Khás. — Town in Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 50′ N., long. 84° 21′ E.; pop. (1872), 8975. Distant from Gházípur 46 miles north-east, from Ballia 12 miles north-east. Lies about 6 miles east of the great lake Tál Suráhá.

Mahávinyaka.—Sacred peak of the Báruníbuntá Hills, Cuttack District, Bengal; visible from Cuttack city. Consecrated during ages to Siva-worship by ascetics and pilgrims, who penetrated the surrounding jungles, braving the wild Savars and other forest tribes. The Vaishnavs, in later times, have built a monastery on the northern slope of the hill. A massive piece of rock, 12 feet in circumference, still bears the name of Mahávinyaka, the Great Ganesa or Vinyaka, from its resemblance to the elephant-headed god. The right face of the rock is considered to be his father Siva; the left face has a knot over it, fancied to represent the bound-up tresses of his mother, Gaurí or Parvátí. The well is accordingly worshipped as the union of Siva, Gaurí, and Ganesa. A waterfall, 30 feet higher up, supplies the temple and its pilgrims.

Mahé (*Mahi*, a 'Fish'?).—French settlement and town in Malabar District, Madras; situated in lat. 11° 41′ 50″ N., and long. 75° 34′ 25″ E., to the south of the mouth of the river Mahé, with a roomy harbour whose rocky bar admits vessels up to 70 tons. Pop. (1871), 8492. The only French settlement on the west coast, and now of little importance or commercial activity.

The place is thus described in an official report:—

'This little French settlement is about 4 miles to the south of Tellicherri, and contains a superficial area of 1445 acres. The French first settled here with a view to acquiring a share in the pepper trade, in 1722, having obtained the grant of a plot of ground for a factory

from the Rájá of Kadattanád, or, as he was styled, *Boyanúr* (literally *Valunaver*, "ruler"); about the same time they obtained the grant of a piece of land at Calicut from the Zamorin, measuring about 6 acres, which is still in their possession (*see* CALICUT). In 1752, they acquired by purchase from the Rájá of Cherakál the ports of Rámátuti, Kavái, Nileshwaram, and Mattalye; and in 1754, Mount Dilli, from the same potentate. But with the surrender of Mahé in February 1761, all these possessions fell into the hands of the English; and, with the exception of the fort at Mount Dilli, which was placed in charge of a European sergeant, all the other fortifications were razed to the ground. Mahé was restored to the French in 1765; but it was, with its surrounding dependencies, again captured by the English in 1779, to be once more restored in 1785. It was for a third time taken in 1793, and was given back, along with the small factory at Calicut. Mahé was at first a place of considerable importance and trade, but afterwards, having fallen so frequently into the hands of the English, the settlement and its trade suffered; and in 1782, its fortifications were not only razed to the ground, but the town was nearly entirely burnt. It is now a decaying place, with most of its chief buildings picturesquely situated on the bank close to the river mouth. The site is hilly, but covered with a dense mass of cocoa-nut palms. It is noted for the fertility of its soil and the salubrity of its climate. The settlement is in charge of a *chef-de-service* subordinate to Pondicherri. It contains a Roman Catholic chapel, a school, and British post office; and a long wooden bridge, maintained by the British Government, gives access to the British territory on the right bank. The coast road from Beypur (Beypore) railway terminus, running northward through Tellicherri and the military station of Cannanore, passes through Mahé.'

Máheji.—Municipal town in Khandesh District, Bombay; and a station on the north-east line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway; 240 miles north-east of Bombay, and 45 miles east of Dhulia. Pop. (1872), 2150; municipal income, £124. A large Hindu fair is held annually from January to March. The value of the goods sold at the fair in 1876 was estimated at £127,283. Lat. 20° 46′ N., long. 75° 30′ E.

Mahendragiri (*Mahendra Malai*).—Mountain peak in the Eastern Gháts, Ganjám District, Madras. Lat. 18° 58′ 10″ N., long. 84° 26′ 4″ E.; 4923 feet above sea level.

Mahendratanáya.—River of Madras; rises in lat. 19° 1′ 30″ N., and long. 84° 26′ E., in the Mahendragiri Hill, and, after flowing through the Parla Kimedi *zamíndárí* and joining the Vamsadhára, enters the sea (lat. 18° 52′ 40″ N., long. 84° 38′ E.) at Pudi (Coomdy) in Ganjám District.

Mahesh ('*Buffalo*').—Village suburb of Serampur, Húglí District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 44′ N., long. 88° 23′ 45″ E. Famous for the two

great festivals of Jaganáth, the Snán-Játrá or 'bathing of the god,' in May, and the Rath-Játrá or 'car procession,' six days later. At the latter, the god is dragged to the village of Ballabhpur, a mile distant, and brought back after an eight days' visit to the temple of Rádhá-ballabh. An important fair is held at Mahesh during the eight days, with an attendance of about 8000 persons daily, and 100,000 people on the first and eighth day, when the procession and return journey take place.

Mahesh-rekha. — Subdivision of Húglí District, Bengal, lying between 22° 13′ and 22° 47′ N. lat., and between 87° 47′ and 88° 14′ E. long. Area, 468 square miles; number of villages, 1128—of houses, 79,554. Pop. (1872), 433,993, of whom 357,827, or 82·5 per cent., were Hindus; 76,113, or 17·5 per cent., Muhammadans; 24 Christians; and 29 'others.' Proportion of males in total population, 47·3 per cent.; average density of population, 927 per square mile; average number of villages per square mile, 2·41; persons per village, 385; houses per square mile, 170; inmates per house, 5·5. The Subdivision consists of the 5 police circles (*thánás*) of Khánákul, Amptá, Ulubária, Bágnán, and Syampur.

Mahespur.—Municipal town in Nadiyá District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 55′ 55″ N., long. 88° 56′ 50″ E.; pop. (1869), estimated at 4100; number of houses, 1060; revenue (1876-77), £58; expenditure, £136; average incidence of taxation, 4d. per head.

Maheswar.—Town in Indore State, Central India; situated in lat. 22° 11′ N., and long. 75° 37′ E., on the north or right bank of the Narbadá (Nerbudda), which here rushes over a rocky bottom between banks 60 or 80 feet high. The stream is about 2000 feet wide at this point, and the water is reached by a vast *ghát* or flight of stone stairs reaching below the water at its lowest. Maheswar was formerly the residence of Ahalya Bái, widow of Kanda Ráo, son of the Mahárájá Malhar Ráo. It contains a fort in bad repair and a fine palace, built, about fifty years ago, of grey basalt, and highly ornamented with sculptures. Thornton states that the estimated population in 1820 was 17,500. No later figures are available.

Mahgáwán.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; situated 9 miles north of Sandíla. Pop. (1869), 2941 persons, residing in 394 mud houses. Bi-weekly market. The inhabitants have a local reputation for honesty in conducting arbitrations.

Mahi.—River of Bombay, with a course of from 300 to 350 miles in length, and a drainage area estimated at from 15,000 to 17,000 square miles. After the Narbadá (Nerbudda) and the Tápti, it is the largest river of Guzerat and the fifth in the Bombay Presidency. The main branch of the Mahi rises about 1850 feet above sea level in the Amjhera State, Málwá, in lat. 22° 52′ N., and long. 75° 5′ E., almost

due east of the town of Cambay, and distant from it in a straight line about 160 miles. The source of the river is in the Mehad Lake, half-way between the town of Amjhera and the village of Bopáwar near the western extremity of the Vindhyá Mountains, where, taking a sharp bend almost at right angles to the line of their main range, they stretch northwards to meet the Aravalli Hills. For 6 or 7 miles, the Mahi flows westward, then bending round Bopáwar, it takes a northerly course parallel with the line of the northern Vindhyá Hills. Sunk in a deep valley between banks in places more than 100 feet high, receiving as it passes many tributaries from the east, but no stream of any size from the west, for 140 miles the Mahi flows to the north till the boundary hills of Bágar force the stream to take a sudden turn westward. For 25 miles it continues to flow to the west, when, meeting the high mountains of Mewád, it makes a further bend to the south-west, which direction it keeps until its fall into the Gulf of Cambay, in lat. 22° 14′ N., and long. 72° 38′ E. For the first part of its course, the Mahi passes through the lands of the Mahi Kánta and Rewá Kánta chiefs. It then enters British territory, and separates the District of Káira on the right from the Pánch Mahál s and Baroda on the left. Farther to the west, and for the rest of its course, its right bank forms the southern boundary of the State of Cambay, and its left the northern limit of Broach District. The bed of the river lies so much below the level of the land on either side of its banks, that its waters cannot readily be made use of for irrigation. According to the legend, the Mahi is the daughter of the Earth, and the sweat that ran from the body of Indrádyumna, the King of Ujjain. Though, like other streams, it is considered sacred, fear would seem to be the prevailing feeling of the natives in their worship of the Mahi. The height of its banks, and the fierceness of its floods; the deep gullies through which the traveller has to pass on his way to the river, and perhaps, above all, the bad name of the tribes on its banks, explain the proverb: 'When the Mahi is crossed, there is comfort.'

Mahiganj.—Largest town in Rangpur District, Bengal; situated in lat. 25° 43′ 30″ N., and long. 89° 20′ E., within the municipal limits of the civil station of RANGPUR. Total pop. (1872), 14,845. Important seat of commerce; large trade in District produce. Dispensary.

Mahi Kánta, The.—A group of Native States forming a Political Agency under the Government of Bombay; situate between 23° 14′ and 24° 28′ N. lat., and between 72° 40′ and 74° 5′ E. long.; with an area of about 4000 square miles, and a population (1876) of 447,056. It is bounded on the north-east by the Rájput States of Udáipur and Dungarpur; on the south-east by Rewá Kánta; on the south by the British District of Káira; on the west by the Native States of Baroda and the Palanpur Agency. The Mahi Kánta territory is subject to a number

of chiefs, of whom the Rájá of Edar is by far the most important. In May 1877, these chiefs were classified in 7 divisions, according to their importance and the extent of their jurisdiction. The Rájá of Edar is a First-Class chief, exercising full powers of jurisdiction, both civil and criminal (in the case of British subjects only with the consent of the Political Agent). The chiefs of the Second Class exercise jurisdiction in civil cases up to £2000; and full jurisdiction in criminal cases, subject to confirmation by the Political Agent in capital cases, and with the above limitation in regard to British subjects. Chiefs of the Third Class exercise jurisdiction in civil cases up to £500, and in criminal cases up to a penalty of two years' imprisonment and £100 fine, with the above limitation in regard to British subjects; and so on for the remaining Four Classes, with gradually decreasing powers. There are 2 States of the Second Class—Pol and Danta; 3 of the Third Class—Malpur, Mansa, Manpur; 9 of the Fourth Class—Warsora, Pithapur, Ranasan, Punadra, Kharal, Ghorasar, Katosan, Ilol, Amalyara; 9 of the Fifth Class—Walasna, Dabha, Wasna, Sudasna, Rupal, Dadhalya, Magori, Waragam, Sathamba; 14 of the Sixth Class—Ramas, Barudra, Derol, Kherawara, Kuroli, Waktapur, Prempur, Dedhrota, Tajpuri, Hapa, Suttasan, Bhalusna, Likhi, Harol; 14 of the Seventh Class—Magona, Tejpura, Visrora, Palej, Dehloli, Kussulpura, Mehmudpura, Ijpura, Rampura, Ranipura, Gubat, Temba, Umbri, Motakotarni.

In 1838, Captain (afterwards Sir James) Outram instituted border *pancháyats* for the settlement of the numerous blood feuds and disputes between the wild Bhíls on the Mahi Kánta and Rájputána frontier. The system, which is one of money compensation for crime, has been found very effective in preventing reprisals and maintaining peace; in 1873, the rules were revised, providing for the regular assembling of the courts under one British officer as president, aided by two assessors from each of the States concerned. In 1878, arrangements were concluded for the extradition of all criminals except Bhíls, and of *Bhopás* or witch-finders among Bhíls, between Mahi Kánta and Rájputána. During the year 1878-79, stringent measures were taken in most of the Mahi Kánta States for the suppression of illicit stills, in which the *maura* liquor is manufactured; but the cheapness of this liquor is still the curse of the Mahi Kánta States, as the Bhíls and Kulis cannot resist the temptation of drinking it.

There is a *tálukdári* school at Edar, for the sons of the Rájás and Thákurs who are unable to attend the Rájkumár College in Káthiáwár.

The entire revenues of the Mahi Kánta amount to about £110,000; of which the Gáekwár receives £12,948; the Edar Chief, £752; the British Government, £91; and other States, £287. The minor chiefs are usually Rájputs, but many of them are Kulis.

Máhim.—Chief town of the Máhim Subdivision, Tanna District,

Bombay; situated in lat. 19° 1′ 30″ N., and long. 72° 52′ 50″ E., about 5 miles west of the Pálghar station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway, and 56 miles north of Bombay. Pop. (1872), 7183. Máhim is a municipal town, with an average annual income of £247. Average annual value of trade during the five years ending 1873-74—imports, £5053, and exports, £7980. Post office and dispensary.

Mahím.—Ancient and decayed town in Rohtak District, Punjab. Lat. 28° 58′ N., long. 76° 20′ E.; pop. (1868), 6768, consisting of 3526 Hindus, 3240 Muhammadans, and 2 Christians. Bears traces of greater importance in former times. Founded before the Muhammadan conquest; destroyed by Shaháb-ud-dín Ghori; restored in 1266 A.D. by one Peshora, a Bania. Akbar bestowed it upon Sháhbáz Khán, an Afghán, under whose descendants it attained great prosperity. During the reign of Aurangzeb, however, it was again plundered in the course of the desultory war waged against that Emperor by the Rájputs under Durga Dás. Though afterwards gradually re-peopled, it never recovered its greatness. The chief relic of antiquity is a well with steps, built in 1656 by Saidu Kalál, mace-bearer to Sháh Jahán. No trade of importance. Police station, post office, town school, rest-house, customs outpost. Police force of 18 men.

Mahmúdábád.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Sítápur District, Oudh.—*See* BARI.

Mahmúdábád.—*Parganá* of Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Biswán, on the east by Sadrpur, on the south by Bára Bánki District, and on the west by Bári. A well-cultivated level tract, producing rich crops. Area, 130 square miles, or 83,097 acres, of which 59,285 acres are cultivated and 10,939 still available for tillage. Pop. (1869), 73,768, viz. 61,381 Hindus and 12,387 Muhammadans. Government land revenue, £11,346; average incidence, 2s. 8¾d. per acre of total area, 3s. 3¼d. per acre of assessed area, and 3s. 11d. per acre of cultivated area. The *tálukdár*, a Muhammadan Shaikh, owns 125 out of the 197 villages comprising the *parganá*.

Mahmúdábád.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh; situated on the high road from Sítápur to Bahrámghát. Lat. 27° 17′ 40″ N., long. 81° 9′ 45″ E.; pop. (1869), 6313, the proportion of Hindus and Muhammadans being about equal. With the exception of the temples and mosques, and the *tálukdár's* residence, a new and lofty three-storied mansion, there are no masonry buildings in the town. Annual market sales, between £11,000 and £12,000. Manufacture of brass utensils. Police station, post office, registration office, school, and travellers' rest-house. The town was founded about 200 years ago by Mahmúd Khán, ancestor of the present *tálukdár*.

Mahobá.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a hilly and rocky tract, interspersed with the

famous artificial lakes, formed by the ancient Chandel princes. Area, 329 square miles, of which 144 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 72,163; land revenue, £10,949; total Government revenue, £11,758; rental paid by cultivators, £30,015; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 0½d.

Mahobá. — Ancient town in Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl;* lies in lat. 25° 17′ 40″ N., and long. 79° 54′ 40″ E., on the route from Bándá to Ságar, 36 miles south-west of the former town; also on that from Hamírpur to Naugáon, 54 miles south of Hamírpur. Pop. (1872), 6977, consisting of 5549 Hindus and 1428 Muhammadans. The town stands on the side of the Madan Ságar Lake, constructed by the Chandel Rájás, and consists of three distinct portions — one north of the central hill, known as the Old Fort; one on the top of the hill, known as the Inner Fort; and one to the south, known as Daríba. Founded about 800 A.D. by Rájá Chandra Varmma, who performed a great sacrifice, from which the town derives its name. Architectural antiquities of the Chandel period abound throughout the neighbourhood. The Rám Kund marks the place where Chandra Varmma, founder of the dynasty, died; and the tank is believed to be a reservoir into which the united waters of all holy streams pour themselves. The fort, now almost entirely in ruins, commands a beautiful view over the hills and lakes. The temple of Munia Devi, partially renovated, has in front of its entrance a stone pillar ascribed to Madana Varmma. Of the lakes, confined by magnificent masonry dams, two have greatly silted up; but the Kirat and Madan Ságars, works of the 11th and 12th centuries, still remain deep and clear sheets of water. The shores of the lakes, and the islands in their midst (one of which, in the Madan Ságar, is connected with the mainland by a stone causeway), are thickly covered with ruined temples, monstrous figures carved out of the solid rock, pillars, broken sculpture, and other early remains. The numerous arms of the lakes embrace rocky tongues of land, surmounted by picturesque temples; while on the hills above stand summer-houses, where the ancient Rájás enjoyed the cool breezes from the water. Where the town runs along the northern bank of the Madan Ságar, on the artificial dam which hems it in, flights of carved granite steps lead down the bank, while shrines overhang the edge. Relics of Jain temples and Buddhist inscriptions also occur. The Chandels reigned at Mahobá for twenty generations, until Parmál, the first to drop the suffix of Varmma or Brahm, was conquered by Prithwi Ráj. About 1195 A.D., the town fell into the hands of Kutab-ud-dín. The existing monuments of Muhammadan date include the tomb of Jálhan Khán, constructed from the fragments of a Sivaite temple; and a mosque, also built of Chandel materials, and bearing an inscription in Persian,

which assigns its foundation to the year 1322 A.D., during the reign of Ghiyás-ud-dín Tughlak. At a later period, Mahobá became the headquarters of a Banjárá colony, who supplied grain to Central India. The modern town contains a *tahsíli*, police station, post office, school, dispensary, *sarái*, *bázár*, and travellers' bungalow. Small trade in grain, English and country cloth, and *pán*.

Maholi.—*Parganá* in Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Kheri District, on the east by Sítápur *parganá*, on the south by Misrikh *parganá*, and on the west by the Kathna river, separating it from Chandra *parganá*. A fertile region, with the exception of some sandy and raviny tracts in the vicinity of the Kathna river. Highly cultivated by Kurmís, who are skilled agriculturists. Area, 79·7 square miles, or 51,075 acres, of which 28,627 acres are cultivated, 8279 cultivable, 8282 rent-free, and 5887 uncultivable. Incidence of Government land revenue, 2s. 0⅜d. per acre of total area, 2s. 4¼d. per acre of assessed area, and 3s. 1⅛d. per acre of cultivated area. Pop. (1869), 33,678, viz. 31,893 Hindus and 1785 Muhammadans. The *parganá* has repeatedly changed hands, having been held successively by Pásis, Ahbans, and Gaurs. An Ahban Rájá held it at the time of the Mutiny, but his estates were confiscated for rebellion, and conferred upon certain loyal grantees.

Mahona.—*Parganá* in Lucknow District, Oudh; situated along the left bank of the Gumti river; bounded on the north by Sítápur, on the east by Bára Bánki, and on the south and west by Lucknow. One of the most fertile and best cultivated *parganás* in the District; but along the banks of the Gumti, and for some distance inland, the country is sandy, and dotted with marshes. The interior consists of a large tract of jungle, only awaiting cultivation. Area, 147¼ square miles, or 94,259 acres, of which 52,979 acres are cultivated and 23,209 available for cultivation. Government land revenue, £13,548; average incidence, 2s. 9d. per acre of total area, 3s. 7½d. per acre of assessed area, and 5s. per acre of cultivated area. Of the 195 villages comprising the *parganá*, 132 are held by Rájputs. Pop. (1869), 71,518, of whom 64,606 are Hindus and 6912 Muhammadans. Three towns contain upwards of 2000 inhabitants (MAHONA, Itaunja, and Mariaon), and six others between 1000 and 2000. Good road communication with Lucknow and other towns. Originally held by the Bhars, these were ousted by Kurmís, who in their turn were driven out by Rájputs of the Ponwár and Chauhán tribes. The two chief *tálukdárs* are Ponwár Rájputs.

Mahona.—Town in Lucknow District, Oudh; situated east of the Lucknow and Sítápur road, and about 15 miles from Lucknow city. It was formerly the headquarters town of the *parganá*, and the residence of the Government officials; but the homestead of the village of

Gobindpur adjoined it, and it is said that on one occasion the Bráhman proprietors of the latter village broke into the Government fort and recovered a child that they had placed in hostage for some revenue. The *ámil* thereupon moved his fort to Bahádurganj, a short distance off. The place has for a long time ceased to be of any importance. Pop. (1869), 3594; but this includes the two adjacent villages of Gobindpur and Kesrámau Kalán.

Mahráj.—Town in Firozpur District, Punjab; an aggregation of four large villages, the headquarters of the Mahrájkián Játs, a branch of the Phulkián clan, to which belong the Mahárájá of Patiála and the Rájás of Nabha and Jhínd. Lat. 30° 19′ N., long. 75° 14′ E. A great excavation, from which was taken earth to build the town, is regarded as a sacred spot, offerings being made monthly to the guardian priest. The Mahrájkiáns, who own the surrounding country as *jágírdárs*, form a distinct community; physically robust, but litigious, insubordinate, and addicted to excessive opium-eating.

Ma-htún (*Ma-htoon*). — River in Thayet District, Pegu, British Burma; rises near the lofty Myeng-ka-dek Peak of the Arakan Yoma Hills; flows south, and 8 miles from its source enters British territory. It then crosses the Meng-dún and Ka-ma townships, and falls into the Irawadi just above Ka-ma, about 50 miles in a direct line from whence it enters the District. The course of the Ma-htún is so winding, that the actual distance traversed by it in British Burma is about 150 miles. The scenery throughout its whole length is exceeding picturesque. Large quantities of the produce of its fertile valley—rice, cotton, cutch, timber, etc.—are floated down and rafted at its mouth. This river has no important tributaries, most of its affluents being merely mountain torrents. During the dry season, the fields on the high banks, which are sometimes 30 feet above the level of the water, are irrigated by means of a simple but ingenious self-acting, undershot water-wheel, driven by the current. This machine has been in use here time out of mind, and is not found elsewhere in Burma; yet no tradition exists as to the period of its introduction or the person by whom it was invented. At the spot where the wheel is to work, common jungle-wood posts, generally eight in number, are driven into the ground in two lines of four posts each parallel to the course of the river, one line close under the bank and the other some distance out in the stream. A strong bar is securely fastened along the top of each line, and on these two bars, at right angles to the course of the river, rests the shaft of the wheel, which thus revolves between the two lines of posts which support it. The whole of the wheel, with the exception of the shaft, which is of some hard wood, is constructed of bamboo. Attached to the outer ends of the spokes, in a similar position to that of the floats of the paddle of a steamer, are flaps or paddles of coarse

bamboo mat-work. Alternately with these floats, on either side of the wheel, are placed the buckets, which are joints of bamboo closed at one end by the natural knot of the wood. These buckets, of which there are thus twice as many as there are floats or flaps, are so arranged that as the wheel turns they dip into the water above the wheel, and rise from it below at an angle of about 45°. The current acting on the floats, the wheel revolves, dipping each pair of buckets successively; these passing under water and filling, retain on rising from 2 to 4 pints each, which, on arriving at the top, they discharge into troughs that carry the water into the fields, and redescend to bring up a fresh supply. The diameter of the wheel, which is sometimes as much as 18 feet, is regulated by the height of the bank, and the shaft is placed at such a distance above the level of the stream that each float in turn passes completely under, and the whole of its surface is acted upon by the current. If it should so happen that the force of the water is not sufficient, dams are constructed higher up, and after two or three days or less, as may be necessary, the dam is cut, and the stored water turned on to the wheel.

Mahuásarhí.—Range of hills in the District of the Santál Parganás, Bengal, in Nayá Dumká Sub-District; rises to about 1500 feet in the form of a long ridge of unequal height, with numerous flanking spurs. One part is a tableland of considerable extent, on which it was at one time proposed to form a sanitarium.

Mahudha.—Town in Káira District, Bombay; situated in lat. 22° 48′ 30″ N., and long. 73° 1′ E. Pop. (1872), 9384. Post office and dispensary. Mahudha is said to have been founded by a Hindu prince named Mandhuta, about 2000 years ago.

Mahudi.—Hill in the Karanpurá *parganá* of Hazáribágh District, Bengal; situated about 8 miles from the southern face of the Hazáribágh Plateau. Scarped all round, forming a natural fortress; height of scarp, 800 feet; elevation above sea, 2437 feet. Detached from the northern face of the hill is a remarkable outwork (so to speak), shaped like a crescent. A successful tea plantation has been established on this hill; area under mature plant in 1872, 150 acres: approximate yield of tea in that year, 12,000 lbs. (of which 3170 lbs. were black and 8830 green); average yield per acre of land under mature plant, 80 lbs.

Máhul.—Port in Tanna District, Bombay. Lat. 19° 0′ 45″ N., long. 72° 56′ 45″ E. Average annual value of trade during the five years ending 1873-74—imports, £17,060, and exports, £17,868.

Máhul.—North-western *tahsíl* of Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces, consisting chiefly of an upland alluvial plain. Area, 437 square miles, of which 221 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 273,126; land revenue, £28,597; total Government revenue, £31,447; rental paid

by cultivators, £72,944; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 0½d.

Mahuli and Malangarh.—Celebrated hill fortresses in the Western Gháts, Tanna District, Bombay.—*See* TANNA.

Ma-hú-ra.—Revenue circle in the Hpoung-leng township of Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. In the south portion there is a good deal of rice cultivation, but the north is hilly and even mountainous in parts, producing a large quantity of teak and other valuable trees, as *reng-daik* (Dalbergia sp.), used for plough and cart poles, and the wood-oil tree *ka-gnyeng* (Dipterocarpus tuberculatus). Pop. (1877-78), 5850; revenue, £7460.

Mahurígáon.—Port on the Baitaraní, 2 miles above Chándbálí, Cuttack District, Bengal.—For the details of the trade of Mahurígáon, see CHANDBALI, its sister port.

Mahuwa.—One of the petty States of Hallár, Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 3 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £200; tribute of £12 is paid to the British Government, and £4 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Mahuwa.—Town and port in Bhaunagar State, Káthiáwár, Bombay; situated in lat. 21° 5′ 15″ N., and long. 71° 48′ 45″ E. Pop. (1872), 13,457.—For nautical information, see Taylor's *Sailing Directory* (ed. 1874), p. 361.

Ma-í (*Ma-ee*).—Revenue circle in Sandoway District, Arakan, British Burma. Approximate area, 590 square miles. Towards the east the country is mountainous, and covered with dense forest; the little river Wai traverses the circle from east to west. Chief products—rice, cotton, sugar-cane, and sesamum. Pop. (1876-77), 2508; gross revenue, £669.

Máibong.—Ruins in North Cáchár, Assam, between two spurs of the Baráil Hills, on the north side of the watershed. Capital of the native Cáchárí dynasty during the 17th century, when the Cáchárís first came under Hindu influence. The site is now overgrown with jungle; but straggling fruit-trees and several small stone temples still remain. The court-house at Asálu has been built out of the materials supplied by the ruins of a brick fort.

Máidáni (*Lowágħar*).—Range of hills in Bannu District, Punjab, known also as the Shíngarh or Chicháli Hills. They shut in the Bannu valley toward the east, and divide the basins of the Kuram and Gambíla from that of the Indus. The highest point, known as Sukha Zárat, occurs about 16 miles west of Kálábágh, and has an elevation of 4745 feet above sea level. The hill of Máidán, half-way down the range (lat. 32° 51′ N., long. 71° 10′ 45″ E.), rises to a height of 4256 feet. The main road from Miánwáli enters the Bannu valley by the Tang Darra Pass, at the southern termination of the Máidáni chain.

Máihar.—Native State within the Bághalkhand Political Agency,

under the Central India Agency, and the Government of India. Bounded on the north by the Nagod State, on the east by Rewah State, on the south by the British District of Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), and on the west by Ajáigarh. The East Indian Railway, between Jabalpur and Allahábád, runs through this State. The chief town, Máihar, is about 100 miles north-east of Jabalpur, in lat. 24° 16′ 5″ N., and long. 80° 47′ 40″ E. It is a large town, and has a *bázár*, with a *jhíl* (or expanse of water) on the north-west, and another to the south-west. This State was originally a dependency of Rewah; but many years before the establishment of British power in Bághalkhand, it had fallen into the possession of the Bundela Rájá of Tanna, by whom the territory was granted to the father of Thákur Dúrjun Sinh. On the British occupation, the Thákur was confirmed in his possession on his executing a deed of allegiance. On Dúrjun Sinh's death in 1826, his two sons disputed the succession, and appealed to arms. The British Government put an end to the feud by dividing the territory. Bishen Sinh received Máihar; Prag Dás, Bijeraghogarh. The latter territory was confiscated in 1858, in consequence of the rebellion of the chief. Bishen Sinh's grandson, the present chief, Rájá Ragbír Sinh, a Hindu of the Jogi caste, was born about 1850. The title of Rájá, in place of the less dignified title of Rái, was conferred by the British Government on Ragbír Sinh and his heirs, in recognition of the liberality displayed by him in remitting transit-duties, and ceding land for railway purposes.

The area of Máihar is about 400 square miles; the population in 1875 was estimated at about 70,000, and the revenue at £74,200. The military force consists of 7 guns and 88 infantry and police. The Rájá, who was educated at the Agra College, exercises jurisdiction in his own territory, independent of the British courts of law, except in the case of crimes of a heinous nature, international cases, or those in which Europeans are concerned.

Mai-hpyú.—Revenue circle in the Bhúm-ma-wa-dí township, Toung-ngú District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Pop. (1877), 8197; gross revenue, £718.

Máikal.—Range of hills in Biláspur and Mandla Districts, Central Provinces; running south-west from Amarkantak for about 70 miles, and continuing thence by a similar range known as the Sálétekrí Hills. The Máikal range forms the eastern scarp of the great hill system which traverses India almost from east to west, south of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river. It rarely exceeds 2000 feet in height, but a detached peak, called the Láphá Hill, attains an elevation of 3500 feet. The *dáhya* mode of cultivation has greatly injured the magnificent forests of *sál* which once clothed the heights; but measures have now been taken to prevent further damage.

Máilapur (or *Saint Thomé*).—Suburb of Madras. —*See* MYLAPUR.

Máilog.—One of the Hill States under the Government of the Punjab, lying between 30° 52′ 30″ and 31° 5′ N. lat., and between 76° 52′ and 76° 58′ E. long. The Chief or Thákur was confirmed in his former possessions after the Gurkhás were driven out of the country, and the *sanad* dates from 1814. The area of the State is 48 square miles. The population was estimated in 1876 at about 9000, and the revenue at £1000, out of which tribute of £145 is paid to the British Government. Principal products, opium and grains. Dhulíp Chánd, the present Thákur, is of the Rájput caste; he was born about 1829. The family suffix is Chánd. Sentences of death passed by the Thákur require the confirmation of the Superintendent of the Hill States. All other punishments are awarded by the Chief on his own authority. A military force of 75 men is kept up.

Máilsi.—North-eastern *tahsíl* of Multán (Mooltan) District, Punjab, lying between 29° 29′ and 30° 16′ N. lat., and between 71° 31′ 30″ and 72° 54′ 30″ E. long., and consisting for the most part of an almost desert upland plain, stretching inward from the north bank of the Satlaj. Area, 2082 square miles; pop. (1868), 118,557, or 56 persons per square mile; number of townships, 462.

Maimansinh (*Mymensing*).—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 23° 56′ and 25° 25′ N. lat., and between 89° 43′ and 91° 18′ E. long. Area (Parliamentary Abstract, 1878), 6299 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1872, 2,349,917 persons. Bounded on the north by the Garo Hills; on the east by the Assam District of Sylhet; on the south-east by Tipperah District; on the south by Dacca; and on the west by the river Jamuná, which separates it from the Districts of Pabná, Bográ, and Rangpur. The administrative headquarters are at MAIMANSINH TOWN or NASIRABAD, on the west bank of the Brahmaputra.

Physical Aspects.—The District is for the most part level and open, covered with well-cultivated fields, and intersected by numerous small rivers and channels. To this general rule, the MADHUPUR jungle or Gar Guzálí forms an exception. This is a slightly elevated tract extending from the northern part of Dacca District into the very heart of Maimansinh, almost as far as the Brahmaputra; its average height is about 60 feet above the level of the plain, and it nowhere exceeds 100 feet; it is about 45 miles in length, and from 6 to 16 miles in breadth. The jungle, with which the tract is covered, is very dense, and contains abundance of *sál* (Shorea robusta), which is valuable both for timber and as charcoal. This part of the District is very unhealthy, especially during the hot weather and rains. During the cold season, the open parts of the jungle afford grazing grounds for cattle. The only other elevated tract in Maimansinh District is situated on the

northern border, where the Susang Hills rise. They are for the most part covered with thick thorny jungle, but are in some places barren and rocky. They have long even ridges, and are accessible to beasts of burthen. Their height has not been accurately ascertained. The JAMUNA, which forms the western boundary of Maimansinh, touches the District near Dáokobá in Rangpur, and, after a course of 94 miles from north to south, leaves it at Salímábád. It is navigable for large boats throughout the year; and during the rainy season it expands in many places to 5 or 6 miles in breadth, overflowing a considerable portion of the low-lying lands adjoining its left bank. Some remarkable instances of alluvion and diluvion have taken place in consequence of the rapidity of its current. The river is not fordable at any period of the year. The BRAHMAPUTRA enters Maimansinh at its north-west corner, near Karáibárí, and flows south-east and south through the centre of the District as far as Tok, whence it forms the boundary between Maimansinh and Dacca as far as Bhairab Bázár, a little below which it unites its waters with those of the Meghná. The gradual formation of *chars* and bars of sand in the upper part of its bed has diverted the main volume of water into the present channel of the Jamuná, and the latter river has in consequence become much more important than the Brahmaputra proper. The MEGHNA ranks third among the Maimansinh rivers, but it only flows through a small portion of the District in the south-east. Among the less important streams may be mentioned the Jhinái, a tributary of the Jamuná, not navigable in the dry season; and the Kángsá, which is navigable throughout the year by boats of considerable burthen. The eastern and south-eastern parts of the District abound in marshes, which contain quantities of fish; but the only sheet of water deserving the name of a lake is the Háodá *bíl*, in the northern part of the Madhupur jungle, which varies in size according to the season. The wild animals of Maimansinh are numerous and of many kinds. Tigers infest the *char* lands in the river beds in the north-west of the District, and bears and other wild animals are found in the Madhupur jungle. Leopards and deer of several kinds abound, among the latter being the rare and beautiful *bará-singhá* or large deer. The rhinoceros is occasionally found; wild buffaloes and boars, which were formerly plentiful, have of late years become scarce. Elephants abound in the Garo and Susang Hills, and are yearly captured in considerable numbers by the Mahárájá of Susang. Small game is abundant, including pea-fowl, florican, jungle fowl, partridges of several kinds, and pheasants.

Population.—Prior to 1872, no systematic attempt was made at an accurate enumeration of the population of Maimansinh. A rough estimate between 1850 and 1856 returned 947,240 persons, and another calculation in 1866 made 1,197,823. The Census of 1872 showed

that this was little more than half the actual total. It disclosed a population of 2,349,917 persons, dwelling in 7601 villages and 308,008 houses. The area taken for the purposes of the Census was 6293 square miles, instead of 6318 square miles, which was afterwards ascertained to be the actual area. The percentages in the Census Report were all based upon the former figure, and they are retained in this article. According to these figures, then, the average density of the population is 373 persons per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 1·21; houses per square mile, 49; persons per village, 309; persons per house, 7·6. The most populous tracts in the District are Pingná *tháná*, lying between the Jamuná river and the Madhupur jungle, where the density is 828 to the square mile; and the strip along the left bank of the old bed of the Brahmaputra, where it averages about 600. Classified according to sex, the number of males is 1,187,962, and of females 1,161,955; proportion of males in total population, 50·5 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years—460,346 boys and 371,868 girls; total children, 832,214, or 35·4 per cent. The small proportion of female as compared with male children is due to the fact, that natives consider that girls attain womanhood at an earlier age than boys reach manhood. The ethnical division of the population is as follows:—Non-Asiatics (all but one, British), 31; mixed races (Eurasians), 58; Asiatics, 2,349,828. Aboriginal tribes number 36,452, the most numerous being the Hájangs, of whom there are 24,936, and the Garos, numbering 10,997. The proper home of the latter is the hilly country to the north of the District known as the GARO HILLS. The inhabitants of this semi-independent tract having been repeatedly guilty of raids on the lowland villages, it was, in 1872, annexed to Bengal; and in 1874 it was incorporated with the new Commissionership of Assam. The Garos of Maimansinh dwell in villages of their own at the foot of the hills. They are a hard-working people, of unusually robust constitution; they eat all kinds of flesh, and are very fond of liquor, manufacturing for themselves a kind of rice-beer, of which they consume large quantities. Of semi-Hinduized aborigines, there are in Maimansinh 205,592, of whom more than half are Chandáls (123,262), the most numerous caste in the District. They are cultivators, fishermen, day-labourers, etc., and some of them are also employed as menial servants in the households of the upper classes; but they are greatly despised, and are not allowed to touch any vessel containing drinking water, or any article of food. The number of high-caste Hindus in the District is returned at 36,267, of whom 33,414 are Bráhmans. Of the intermediate caste of Káyasths or writers, the number is 105,537. The chief agricultural caste is that of the Kaibarttas, of whom there are 77,798. Amongst the persons of Hindu origin who do not recognise caste, the Vaishnavs number 11,991. Grouped together on the basis

of religion, the total number of Hindus in Maimansinh is 817,963, or 34·8 per cent. of the District population. The followers of Islám form the majority of the people, numbering 1,519,635, or 64·7 per cent. The Christian population is very small, numbering only 124 persons, of whom 26 are native converts, and 9 Armenians. The population of the District is almost entirely rural, and only 5 towns contain more than 5000 souls. These are MAIMANSINH (pop. 10,068), JAMALPUR (14,312), KISORIGANJ (13,637), SHERPUR (8015), and DHANIKHOLA (6730). The total urban population thus disclosed amounts to only 52,762 persons, leaving 2,297,155 for the rural population. Maimansinh or Nasirábád, though neither the most populous nor the most important town in the District, is the civil station and administrative headquarters. Jamálpur was at one time a military station, but troops are no longer stationed there; Kisoriganj is the scene of a large annual fair, held in July. Among minor towns may be mentioned—Ulákándi or Bhairab Bázár, the most important river mart in the District, with a good school and well-supplied cattle market; Phatiká, Biru or Datt's Bázár, Madárpur, Nalitábárí, Sambhuganj, Gobindganj, Kálíachápá, and Muktágáchhá, all trading villages with frequent markets; Bángáon, with several Hindu temples; Bázidpur, a village with a municipal police force; Char Garhjarifá, a small village containing the ruins of an old mud fort, said to have been built by one of the independent Muhammadan kings of Bengal; Durgápur, the site of the large but dilapidated palace of the Mahárájá of Susang; and Púrabdeholá, a large village, with an extensive sheet of beautifully clear water, called the Rájdeholá *bíl.*

Agriculture.—The chief food staple of the District is rice, of which three crops are cultivated—namely, the *áus* or autumn crop; the *áman* or winter rice; and the *boro* or spring crop. *Aus* rice is sown from February to April and even May, and reaped from the middle of May till about the middle of September. *Aman* or winter rice, which forms the main harvest of the year, is sown in April, May, and June, and reaped in October, November, and December. *Boro* rice is sown in November and December, and reaped in March, April, and May. Among the other crops grown in the District are wheat, oats, maize, peas and other pulses, linseed, mustard, *til*, indigo, tobacco, a little sugar-cane, *pán*, and jute. The last constitutes the chief commercial staple of Maimansinh. It is cultivated to a great extent throughout nearly the whole of the District, but particularly in the rich alluvial tracts formed by the Brahmaputra between Ghafargáon in the south-east and Bhairab Bázár in the north of Dacca District. The river has here silted up a great deal of late years, and the alluvial accretions (*chars*) thus formed are found to be exceedingly favourable to the growth of jute. The crop is generally sown in April or May, after the cold-weather crops have been reaped and the fields repeatedly ploughed.

The ordinary quantity of seed used is about 8 lbs. per acre. As a rule, seed is not bought and sold, but is raised from the plant by the cultivator himself; when it is sold, the usual price is about 5s. 5d. a cwt., but in very brisk years it rises to £1, 1s. 10d., or even £1, 7s. 3d. a cwt. The crop is reaped from about the middle of August to the middle of October. The best time for cutting is said to be when the plant is in flower, and just before the appearance of the pods; the fibre is then of superior quality. The fibre from plants which have not flowered is weak, while that from plants in seed is harsh and wanting in gloss, though heavier and stronger than the fibre of the flowering plant. The estimated out-turn of jute in Maimansinh is from 17¼ to 19½ cwts. an acre, worth from 4s. 1d. to 5s. 5d. a cwt. The value of a good crop of jute, therefore, may be put down at £4, 4s. an acre. The total cost would be about £2, 16s. an acre if hired labour were employed; but this is rarely the case, the entire cultivation and preparation being as a rule undertaken by the husbandman and his family. The cultivators frequently form themselves into guilds or associations on the principle of mutual co-operation, and undertake by turns the cultivation of the field or the preparation of the fibre for the guild. Jute is held to be a very exhausting crop, and, except in the case of *chars* which are flooded annually, it is rarely grown on the same land for more than three years consecutively. To remedy the exhaustion of the soil, manure is applied, and the jute-fields in Maimansinh are allowed to lie fallow every third or fourth year. The rapid extension of the jute trade of late years has materially improved the condition of the agricultural classes. The Collector of Maimansinh, writing on this subject, says:—'In an economic point of view, jute has been an immense boon to the inhabitants of the District. It has enabled them to utilize lands which were previously of little value, and it has poured in a supply of silver till the great bulk of the people are decidedly raised above a condition of poverty. At the same time, I am not of opinion that the production of cereals has been diminished to any appreciable extent, if, indeed, it has been diminished at all.' This crop is, in fact, as a rule cultivated by the peasantry only with a view to supplementing their regular cultivation of rice and seeds; and very few, if any, devote themselves to it exclusively. It was roughly estimated in 1871 that two-thirds of the entire District are either actually under cultivation or capable of being brought under tillage, while the remaining third is waste and uncultivable. Of the total area under cultivation (estimated in that year at about 3560 square miles), it was calculated that 97 per cent. was under rice. The out-turn of rice per acre varies considerably; but upon the whole an average out-turn from lands rented at 9s. an acre would be a total double crop (rice and a second crop) of about 14 cwts. per acre, with about £2, 14s.; while from richer lands, paying 18s. per acre rent,

a double crop of 26 cwts., valued at £5, 2s. an acre, would be a fair average. Rates of wages have considerably increased of late years, and in towns the price of labour is about one-third greater than in the rural tracts. The rate for labourers varies according to the season of the year; and unskilled labour, which at harvest, or when agricultural operations are active, would command from 12s. to 13s. per month, can sometimes be obtained for 10s. The usual monthly wage of agricultural day-labourers is about 12s.; smiths receive from 14s. to £1; and bricklayers and carpenters, £1. In 1871, the prices of rice were as follows:—Best cleaned rice, from 5s. 5d. to 6s. 10d., and 8s. 2d. a cwt., varying according to the localities in which it was grown; common rice, 4s. 1d. to 4s. 9d.; best unhusked rice, 4s. 1d.; and common rice, 2s. to 2s. 4d. a cwt.

Natural Calamities.—The District suffers occasionally from blights and floods, but never to any serious extent; and nothing like a general destruction of crops has occurred within the memory of the present generation. Although the famine of 1866 did not directly affect Maimansinh, prices rose in the District in that year, unhusked rice reaching 5s. 5d., and cleaned rice 11s. 7d. a cwt. It has been officially stated that the famine-point would be reached in the District if the price of paddy should rise to 10s. 11d., and that of rice to £1, 1s. 10d. a cwt. Probably, however, these figures represent a degree of scarcity beyond the famine-point. In some parts of the District, and particularly towards the south, the people are in the habit of laying in a stock of rice to guard against the contingency of high prices and the failure of a particular harvest. While this reserve store lasted, prices would not reach the above rates. When they did touch those rates the private stores might be held to have been exhausted, and immediate famine would be imminent. If the price of paddy were as high as 4s. 1d. (rice, 8s. 2d.) per cwt. in January or February, after the gathering in of the winter harvest, it would be prudent to anticipate the approach of famine late in the year. The means of local communication in the cold weather are not sufficient to avert the extremity of famine by importation from other parts of the country; but in the rainy season, the water communication would be sufficient to make up in a large degree for the deficiency of the crops.

Commerce, Trade, etc.—The chief articles of import are raw cotton, betel-nuts, and chillies from Tipperah; cattle from Western Bengal; cocoa-nuts from the southern Districts; and refined sugar, piece-goods, wheat, etc. chiefly from Calcutta *viâ* Náráinganj. The principal exports are rice, jute, indigo, reed-mats, hides, brass and copper utensils, cheese, *ghí*, etc. Tobacco and muslins are also exported to a small extent. The value of the exports exceeds that of the imports, so that the balance of trade is in favour of the District. The names of the chief trading places have already been mentioned; the principal fairs are held at

Kisoríganj and Husáinpur. The District is not now the seat of any manufacturing industry on a large scale. In former times, the muslins of Kisoríganj and Bájitpur were of considerable note, and the East India Company had factories at both places; a little muslin is still made in this part of the District. The fine *sitalpáti* mats are largely manufactured in the east and south-east tracts, where the marshes furnish an abundant supply of reeds for the purpose. The only other manufactures of any consequence, are indigo, the description of cheese known as Dacca cheese, and *ghí* or clarified butter. The women of the poorer classes weave a sort of coarse silk cloth from the produce of silk-worms, which they rear themselves. There are in the District about 146 miles of good road, and 124 miles of inferior tracks. In 1871, a sum of £1000 was allowed for their maintenance and repair.

Administration. — Both the revenue and the expenditure of the District have steadily increased since the administration passed into the hands of the British. In 1795, the first year for which records exist, the net revenue amounted to £77,160, and the net expenditure on civil administration to £12,028. By 1821-22, the revenue had increased to £92,908, and the civil expenditure to £14,521. In 1860-61, the figures were—revenue, £132,051, and expenditure, £24,460; and in 1870-71, the net revenue had grown to £161,617, and the civil expenditure to £49,574. Between 1795 and 1870, therefore, the net revenue of Maimansinh more than doubled itself, while the expenditure had increased more than fourfold. It is a curious circumstance that while the general revenue increased, as has been shown, by 109 per cent. between 1795 and 1870, the land tax remained almost stationary during that period, the 'current demand' having risen from £80,605 in 1795, to £84,593 in 1870, or only 4·95 per cent. In 1795, the number of estates on the rent-roll was 4178, held by 4308 registered proprietors; average payment by each proprietor, £18, 14s. 2d. In 1870-71, the number of estates had increased to 6298, and of proprietors to 7354; average payment from each proprietor, £11, 10s. For police purposes, the District is divided into 15 *tháná*s or police circles. In 1871, the regular police force consisted of 493 men of all ranks, maintained at a cost of £10,053. In addition, there was in the same year a municipal force of 89 men, costing £657, and a rural force or village watch of 5619 men, costing £20,228. The total machinery for the protection of person and property in that year, therefore, amounted to 6201 officers and men, or 1 man to every 1·01 square mile and to every 379 of the population. The total cost of maintaining this force was £30,938, equal to a charge of 3⅛d. per head of the population. The number of criminal cases conducted by the police in the same year was 2825; percentage of convictions to persons brought to trial, 49·7. Besides the District jail at the civil station, there

are 3 Subdivisional lock-ups at Jamálpur, Kisoríganj, and Atiá. The average daily prison population in 1872 was 409·12. Education has progressed rapidly during the last few years. In 1856-57, there were only 2 Government and aided schools in the District, attended by 387 pupils. In 1860-61, the number of such schools was 44, with 1830 pupils; and by 1870-71, the number of these schools had risen to 85, and the number of pupils attending them to 3474. Sir George Campbell's extension of the grant-in-aid system to primary schools in 1871 has resulted in a very rapid increase; and in 1872-73, the number of Government and aided schools was 174, with 6372 pupils. In addition, there were in that year 71 unaided schools in the District, attended by 2425 pupils. For administrative purposes, the District is divided into 4 Subdivisions. The number of fiscal divisions (*parganás*) is 30.

Medical Aspects, etc.—The climate of Maimansinh is not specially unpleasant, except towards the end of the rains, when there is much sickness both among Europeans and natives. During the remainder of the year the District is fairly healthy. The principal endemic diseases are malarious fevers (chiefly of the intermittent type), dysentery, rheumatism, and bronchitis. Sporadic cases of cholera occur throughout the year, and the disease occasionally makes its appearance in an epidemic form. Outbreaks of small-pox are common. The health of the civil station has deteriorated of late, owing to a large *char* or sand-bank covered with low jungle having been thrown up by the river in front of the town. Moreover, as the town lies below the level of the river bank, the surface water, instead of draining into the river, collects in filthy pools and ditches. It is not surprising, therefore, that the town should be unhealthy. There are 5 charitable dispensaries in Maimansinh. The average rainfall is 105 inches.

Maimansinh.—Subdivision of Maimansinh District, Bengal, lying between 24° 7′ and 25° 11′ N. lat., and between 91° 2′ and 91° 9′ E. long. Area, 3210 square miles; villages, 3765; houses, 134,625. Pop. (1872), 1,035,647, of whom 644,446, or 62·2 per cent., were Muhammadans; 381,393, or 36·9 per cent., Hindus; 58 Christians; 9750, or 0·9 per cent., 'others.' Proportion of males in total population, 51·5 per cent.; average number of persons per square mile, 323; villages per square mile, 1·17; persons per village, 275; houses per square mile, 42; persons per house, 7·7. This Subdivision comprises the 6 police circles (*thánás*) of Maimansinh, Mádárganj, Ghafargáon, Netrakoná, Durgápur, and Phulpur. In 1870-71, it contained 18 magisterial, revenue, and civil courts; the regular police consisted of 304 men, the village watch of 2887; cost of Subdivisional administration returned at £24,158.

Maimansinh.—Chief town of Maimansinh District, Bengal.—*See* NASIRABAD.

Maini (*Mayani*). —Municipal town in Satára District, Bombay; situated 40 miles south-east of Satára, in lat. 17° 29′ N., and long. 74° 34′ E. Pop. (1872), 2978; municipal revenue, £40. Post office.

Máinpuri.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 26° 52′ 30″ and 27° 30′ N. lat., and between 78° 27′ 45″ and 79° 28′ 30″ E. long. Area, 1696 square miles; population in 1872, 765,845. Máinpuri is a District of the Agra Division. It is bounded on the north by Etah; on the east by Farrukhábád; on the south by the Jumna (Jamuná) river and Etáwah; and on the west by Muttra (Mathura) and Agra. The administrative headquarters are at the town of MAINPURI, which is also the chief centre of commerce and population in the District.

Physical Aspects.—Lying in the central plateau of the Doáb, with only a small portion of its western borders abutting upon the Jumna, Máinpuri exhibits even more than the usual monotony of the Indian plains. From north to south, it consists of an almost unbroken level, intersected at places by tributaries of the two main rivers, but unvaried by any greater elevations than a few undulating sand-ridges. A belt of jungle once stretched across its very centre; but with the advance of cultivation under British rule, only some stray patches of *dhák* forest or coarse grass now mark its former path. The District, however, is wooded throughout with mango groves, while isolated clumps of *bábul* trees occasionally relieve the bareness of its saline *usar* plains. The only noticeable physical features are the natural or artificial bodies of water which have turned the level expanse of Máinpuri into a green sea of cereals, cotton, and sugar-cane. Shallow lakes or marshes (*jhíls*) abound over the whole area, but are most thickly scattered about the central tableland. On the south-western boundary, the Jumna flows in a deep alluvial bed, sometimes sweeping close to the high banks which overhang its valley, and at others leaving room for a narrow strip of fertile soil between the river and the upland plain. From the low-lying lands thus formed, a belt of ravines stretches inland for some 2 miles, often covered with jungle, and incapable of cultivation, but affording good pasturage for cattle, as well as safe retreats for the lawless Ahírs or herdsmen. Moving north-eastward from this point, we encounter in rapid succession the shallow channels of the Sarsa, the Aganga, the Sengar, the Rind, the Isan, and the Káli Nadi, most of which supply water to a small tract on either side, besides giving origin to rich deposits of cultivable silt. The Ganges Canal sweeps through the District in two long curves, passing in the direction of its greatest length, from north-west to south-east. The Etáwah branch waters the country between the Sengar and the Rind, while the Cawnpore branch supplies the watershed between the latter stream and the Isan. In addition to the existing means of irrigation, the Lower

Ganges Canal will also traverse the north-eastern angle and give off distributaries to the country along the Káli Nadi, besides sending out a supply branch to supplement the feeble course of the Etáwah branch. When these important schemes are completed, the District of Máinpuri will be able to compare favourably, as regards water supply, with the most flourishing regions of the Upper Doáb.

History. — Tradition traces back the origin of Máinpuri to the mythical epoch of the Pandavas; and the discovery of Buddhist remains amongst the mounds which mark the sites of ancient cities leaves little doubt that the District has been the seat of a flourishing civilisation from a very early period. It formed part, apparently, of the great kingdom of Kanauj; and after the fall of that famous State, it was divided into a number of petty principalities, of which Rápri and Bhongáon were the chief. The earliest historical inhabitants were Meos, Bhars, and Chirárs, most of whom were entirely supplanted by the Chauhán Rájputs in the 15th century. At a still earlier date, the warlike Ahírs had swarmed over the wild ravines of the western regions, where they remain by far the most numerous and powerful tribe to the present day. The first authentic notice of the District, however, is found in the records of Musalmán invaders. In 1194, Rápri was made the seat of a Musalmán governor, and continued to be the local headquarters under many successive dynasties. During the vigorous reign of Sultán Bahlol (1450-88), Máinpuri and Etáwah formed a debatable ground between the powers of Delhi and Jaunpur, to both of which they supplied mercenary forces. After the firm establishment of the Lodí princes, Rápri remained in their hands until the invasion of the Mughals. Bábar occupied it in 1526, and the wild District of Etáwah also came into his hands without a blow. Máinpuri was wrested from the Mughals for a while by the Afghán, Kutab Khán, son of Sher Sháh, who adorned it with many noble buildings, the remains of which still exist. On the return of Humáyun, the Mughals once more occupied Máinpuri. Akbar included it in his *sarkárs* of Kanauj and Agra. The same vigorous ruler also led an expedition into the District for the purpose of suppressing the robber tribes by whom it was infested. During the long ascendancy of the dynasty of Bábar, the Musalmáns made little advance in Máinpuri. A few Muhammadan families obtained possessions in the District, but a very small proportion of the native inhabitants accepted the faith of Islám. Under the successors of Akbar, Rápri fell into comparative insignificance, and the surrounding country became subordinate to ETAWAH. Like the rest of the lower Doáb, Máinpuri passed, towards the end of the last century, into the power of the Marhattás, and finally became a portion of the Province of Oudh. When the neighbouring region was ceded to the British by the Wazír in the year 1801, the town became

the headquarters for the extensive District of Etáwah. With the exception of a raid by Holkar in 1804, which was repulsed by the provincial militia, Máinpuri has few events of importance to recount during the early years of British supremacy. Its unwieldy size was gradually reduced by the formation of Etah and Etáwah as separate Districts, and the jurisdiction of the authorities at Máinpuri was limited to the 11 *parganás* which lie around the town itself. The Chauhán Rájá of Máinpuri was recognised by Government as *tálukdár* or fiscal farmer of a large portion of the District. Throughout the whole territory measures were adopted for reducing to obedience the turbulent Rájput landowners, most of whom for the first time felt the strong hand of the law under British rule. The construction of the Ganges Canal was the only striking event between the cession and the Mutiny of 1857. News of the massacre at Meerut (Mírath) reached Máinpuri on the 12th of May; and on the 22d, after tidings of the Alígarh revolt had arrived at the station, the 9th Native Infantry broke into open mutiny. The few Europeans at Máinpuri gallantly defended the town till the 29th, when the arrival of the Jhánsi rebels made it necessary to abandon the District entirely. The Magistrate and his party were accompanied as far as Shikohábád by the Gwalior troopers, who then refused to obey orders, but quietly marched off home without molesting their officers. The fugitives reached Agra in safety. Next day, the Jhánsi force attacked the town, but were beaten off by the well-disposed inhabitants. The District was then taken in hand by the Rájá of Máinpuri, who held it till the re-occupation, when he quietly surrendered himself, and order was at once restored. Since 1858, nothing has occurred to interfere with the peaceful course of civil administration in Máinpuri.

Population.—The rapid increase of population in Máinpuri affords the best proof of its steady progress. The Census of 1853 was the first attempt to arrive at the number of inhabitants by actual enumeration, all previous inquiries having been based upon a mere estimate or average calculation. It disclosed a total population, in the *parganás* which constitute the present District, of 634,087 persons, or 414 to the square mile. By 1865, the number had increased to 700,220, or 420 to the square mile. The Census of 1872 showed a further increase to the total of 765,783, giving a density of 452 to the square mile. This population was distributed over 3750 villages and 510,888 houses, being at the rate of 2·2 villages and 88 houses to each square mile, with an average of 204 inhabitants to each village and 5 persons to each house. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 426,955; females, 338,828; proportion of males, 55·8 per cent. This preponderance of males is doubtless due, in part at least, to the prevalence of female infanticide, some remarks upon which subject are given in a later paragraph. Classified according to age, there were, under 15 years—males, 167,840;

females, 126,214; total, 294,054, or 38·39 per cent. As regards religious distinctions, Máinpuri is essentially a Hindu District, there being only 40,965 Musalmáns against 724,663 followers of the ancient faith. The percentage of Muhammadans was accordingly 5·4, and that of Hindus, 94·6 of the total population. The native Christians were returned as 85. Bráhmans numbered 67,072 persons, most of whom belong to the ancient Kanaujiya subdivision. They are large landed proprietors, owning over 18 per cent. of the total area, and are continually adding to their possessions out of the profits of money-lending. The Rájputs were reckoned at 60,155, amongst whom the Chauháns form the largest clan. Many great Thákur families still retain their hereditary estates in Máinpuri, where they have long formed the aristocratic class; but much of their landed property is passing into the hands of the mercantile classes, by sale or mortgage. However, in 1872, the Rájputs still held 44 per cent. of the total area. The Banias or traders were meagrely represented by 15,058, more than half of whom are Jains. The 'other castes' of the Census amounted to an aggregate of 582,378 persons, comprising the great majority of the population. The Ahírs are the most important among them, both in numbers and influence, numbering 123,358, and owning over 12 per cent. of the soil. For many centuries, this tribe consisted of lawless robber hordes, who held the fastnesses of the Jumna ravines; and though they have now been reduced to a comparatively industrial life, they still continue to afford the local authorities much trouble and anxiety. The Chamárs, who head the list in most of the Doáb Districts, sink to the second place in Máinpuri, with a total of 103,193; as usual, they are mere hewers of wood and drawers of water for the landowning classes, who held them in absolute serfdom before the period of British rule. Other large tribes are the Káchhis (72,898), Lodhás (53,658), Gadariyas (28,047), and Kahárs (25,273). The Musalmáns are for the most part poor and without social influence; and there are apparently no fanatical sects in the District. As regards the occupations of the people, 39,088 were returned as landowners, 423,182 as agriculturists, and 303,513 as otherwise engaged. There were only 4 towns with a population exceeding 5000 in 1872—namely, MAINPURI, 21,177; SHIKOHABAD, 10,069; BHONGAON, 6271; and KARHAL, 5574. The language in ordinary use is Hindí.

Infanticide.—Máinpuri is one of the Districts where the question of female infanticide has long engaged the attention of Government. In 1842, measures were introduced for the supervision of the Chauhán Rájputs and the Phátak Ahírs, amongst whom the practice was commonest. Every female birth was reported and authenticated, and a statement of the child's health was required a month later. Illness was immediately announced to the police authorities, who thereupon

investigated the case. These rules remained in force until supplemented by those of the Infanticide Act of 1870. In 1843, there was not a single female child amongst the Chauháns; in 1847, there were 299. In spite of this partial success, the question still remained a difficult one to grapple with, owing to the want of any sympathy or co-operation amongst the people themselves. In 1851, a convention of the heads of clans was held at Sámán, when a body of rules was drawn up and subscribed to. These rules, however, were never observed, as Thákur fathers were so anxious to obtain good marriages for their daughters that they paid extravagant dowers, and so made the possession of female children an expensive luxury. In 1865, Mr. Colvin took a census of the Chauhán and Phátak villages, and found six of the former without a single female infant. In some cases, a daughter had never been known in the village. One such community was selected, and a strong police force quartered upon it. Up to 1870, some progress was made, but a large number of villages still remained under the imputation of infanticide. Fresh measures were taken under the Act of 1870; and inquiries instituted in connection with the Census of 1872 revealed the fact that many other tribes were equally implicated in the guilty practice. In 1875, though a large proportion had so far reformed as to be exempted from special supervision, there were still 276 villages on the 'proclaimed list,' under the surveillance of an organized police, the cost of whose maintenance was defrayed by a tax levied on the guilty communities.

Agriculture.—Máinpuri contains comparatively little cultivable waste, almost every acre of available soil having been already brought under tillage. The cultivated area, at the date of the last settlement, was returned at 607,991 acres, distributed as follows:—*Kharíf* or rain crops—cotton, 48,901 acres; *joár*, 120,497 acres; *bájra*, 74,028 acres; indigo, 5369 acres; with maize, rice, hemp, etc., bringing up the total to 299,850: *Rabí* or spring crops—wheat, 108,488 acres; barley, 60,443 acres; the two mixed together, 66,488 acres; with gram, poppy, etc., making a total of 282,376 acres. There were also 17,523 acres under sugar-cane. Cultivation has been spreading rapidly of late years; it has now covered most of the available area, and almost reached its utmost margin. The use of manure is general, though one application is considered sufficient in most cases for two or even three successive crops. Irrigation is already widely spread, and will be further increased by the opening of the Lower Ganges Canal. At the date of the settlement, it was found that as much as 443,376 acres, or 72·86 per cent. of the cultivated area, were artificially supplied with water. Of this grand total, 102,060 acres were irrigated from canals, 303,573 acres from wells, and 37,743 acres from other sources. Rotation of crops is thoroughly understood. The average out-turn of wheat on the best irrigated land is 1600 lbs. per acre; that of barley, in similar circumstances, reaches the same amount, and on

'dry' land is about one-half the quantity. The yield of cotton is 92 lbs. of cleaned fibre per acre, or 50 lbs. in excess of the average throughout the North-Western Provinces. Two-thirds of the land is held by tenants with rights of occupancy, and only one-third by tenants-at-will. Statements of rent-rates, without specification of caste, are misleading, as the amount demanded depends more upon the rank or position of the tenant than on the nature of the soil. Káchhis, who are skilful and industrious cultivators, pay the highest rates; while Bráhmans have a prescriptive right to low rentals, in consideration of their sacred character; and Ahírs, by banding together against enhancement, manage to keep down all encroachments on the part of the *zamíndárs*. Wages have risen considerably of late years. In 1866, masons received 5¼d. per diem; carpenters, blacksmiths, and tailors, 4½d. per diem; coolies, in towns, 3d., and in villages, 2¼d. per diem. Prices have also been on the increase. From 1859 to 1871, the average prices of food-stuffs were as follows:—Wheat, 25 *sers* the rupee, or 4s. 5¾d. per cwt.; barley, 35 *sers* the rupee, or 3s. 2½d. per cwt.; *joár*, 33 *sers* the rupee, or 3s. 4¾d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 32 *sers* the rupee, or 3s. 6d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Máinpuri suffers little from floods, nor are the ravages of insects specially destructive. But in former years, the District has been severely visited by drought and the famine which follows in its wake. In 1837-38, it was desolated beyond the ordinary misery of that calamitous season; and in 1860-61, another failure occurred, which, however, was greatly mitigated by the extensive relief operations undertaken by Government. Work was found for 4000 able-bodied persons daily, while gratuitous aid was afforded to an average of 4605 persons per diem, at a total cost of £2966. A sum of £2011 was also advanced to cultivators for the purchase of seed and cattle. In the drought of 1868-69, when the neighbouring tracts suffered so severely, this District escaped with comparative impunity. Rain fell in September, just in time to bring up the spring crops to three-fourths of their average yield; and though prices ruled high, in consequence of large exportations southward, there was no serious pressure of local scarcity. The highest quotation for wheat during the period of dearth was 9 *sers* 1 *chhatak* per rupee, or about 12s. 5d. per cwt. The value of canals in seasons of drought is well shown by the fact, that in 1868-69 the canal-irrigated area rose from an average of 54,016 acres to a total of 102,060 acres during the dry weather. The communications of Máinpuri, added to its large and increasing irrigation system, are now probably sufficient to protect it from the extremity of distress in years of famine.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The trade of Máinpuri is of the same rural character as that of the other Doáb Districts. The exports consist chiefly of cotton, grain, indigo, *ghí*, and miscellaneous agricultural pro-

duce; while the imports are confined to metals, English cloth-goods, sugar, pedlars' wares, tobacco, and rice. Cotton-thread is manufactured to a large extent, and there is some trade in bangles, *hukas* or pipes, inlaid woodwork, and similar fancy articles. Saltpetre is refined at several factories scattered over the District, which export considerable quantities of the finished crystal. Máinpuri is thoroughly supplied with means of communication by land and water. The East Indian Railway runs for 23 miles through the south-western angle, with stations at Shikohábád and Bhadán; the navigable branch of the Ganges Canal supplies water-carriage to the central plateau; the natural highway of the Jumna skirts the District to the south; and good metalled roads connect all the principal towns and villages in every direction. There was 1 printing press within the District in 1876, and it printed in the vernacular alone.

Administration.—The revenue of Máinpuri in 1875-76 amounted to £127,616. In the same year, the District was administered by a Civil Judge, a Native Subordinate Judge, and 2 *Munsifs;* a Magistrate-Collector, Joint Magistrate, and 2 Assistant Collectors; besides the usual educational, medical, and minor fiscal officials. In 1870-71, there were 12 magisterial and 12 civil courts in the District. The regular police, including the town and municipal forces, numbered 548 men of all grades in 1874, maintained at a total cost of £7473, chiefly from the Provincial treasury. They were supplemented by 1850 village watchmen or *chaukídárs*, the estimated cost of whose maintenance amounted to £6714. The whole machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 2398 officers and men, or 1 policeman to every 0·7 square mile and every 319 inhabitants; while the expenditure on the entire force amounted to £14,187, or 4½d. per head of the population. The number of persons convicted of any offence during the same year was 968, or 1 criminal to every 791 inhabitants. The jail at Máinpuri contained an average number of 297 prisoners in 1870, being 0·042 per cent. of the population. The average cost of each prisoner was £3, 13s. 4⅛d.; while the average earnings of each amounted to £1, 13s. 7⅛d. Education has made considerable advances of late years. In 1860-61, there were 256 schools, with a roll of 5363 pupils, while the sum expended upon them amounted to £1860. By 1874-75, the number of schools had increased to 328, the total of pupils to 6872, and the cost of their maintenance to £3542. The indifference of the powerful Ahír and Rájput tribes on the subject of education has proved, however, a great barrier to its wider spread. The District is divided into 5 *tahsíls* and 11 *parganás*. It contains only 1 municipality, MAINPURI; the revenue of which in 1875-76 amounted to £1441, while the expenditure was £1268; incidence of municipal taxation, 1s. 3⅛d. per head of population.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Máinpuri does not differ from that of the Doáb generally. It is warm, but not excessively sultry, during the summer months, and damp or foggy during the cold-weather rains. The average total rainfall was 33·2 inches in 1866-67, 43·9 in 1867-68, 10·9 in 1868-69 (the year of scarcity), 31·5 in 1869-70, and 42·6 in 1870-71. The chief endemic disease is malarial fever. The total number of deaths recorded in 1874 was 18,459, or 24·10 per thousand of the population; and of these no fewer than 14,226 were due to fever, while 3194 were the result of cholera. During the same year, 340 in-patients and 5822 out-patients were relieved at the charitable dispensaries of the District.

Máinpuri.—Central northern *tahsíl* of Máinpuri District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of an alluvial upland plain, intersected by the rivers Rind and Isan, and watered by the Cawnpore and Etáwah branches of the Ganges Canal. Area, 396 square miles, of which 191 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 176,835; land revenue, £22,668; total Government revenue, £24,934; rental paid by cultivators, £40,464; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 9½d.

Máinpuri.—Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Máinpuri District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 21,177, consisting of 17,596 Hindus, 3435 Muhammadans, and 146 Christians and 'others.' Situated in lat. 27° 14′ 15″ N., and long. 79° 3′ 5″ E., on the Agra branch of the Grand Trunk Road, which connects the town with Shikohábád station on the East Indian Railway, distant 36 miles south-west. The town consists of two separate portions, Máinpuri proper and Mukhamganj. The former town existed, according to tradition, in the days of the Pandavas, and derived its name from one Máin Deo, whose image may still be seen in one of the suburbs. The Chauháns emigrated hither from Asauli in 1363, and built a fort round which a city sprung up. Rájá Jaswant Sinh founded Mukhamganj in 1803. The civil station for Etáwah District (since separated) was placed at Máinpuri in 1802. Holkar plundered and burnt part of the town in 1804, but was repulsed by the local militia. Since the British occupation, the population has rapidly increased, and many improvements have been carried out. The Grand Trunk Road runs through the centre and forms a wide street, lined on either side by shops, which constitute the principal *bázár*. At the eastern entrance stand the *tahsíli* and police station, while the dispensary and mission buildings lie a little off the road. Next comes Raikesganj, a large *sarái* and grain market, built by Mr. Raikes about 1849. The Etáwah road runs north and south, crossing the Grand Trunk Road; and aids much in ventilation. The Máinpuri portion of the town lies north of the Agra road, and contains many brick houses, beyond which lie pleasant gardens, stretching out to the Rájá's fort and old town. The main street in

this quarter derives its name of Laneganj from a recent Collector, and contains many shops, a market-place, bathing tank, and schools. The civil station stands on the opposite bank of the Isan river, crossed by a good bridge. Police stations, opium warehouses, jail, post office, dispensary, *zilá* and *tahsíli* schools, American Presbyterian mission, church, reading-rooms, and 2 public gardens. Considerable trade in cotton, indigo seed, country produce, and iron. Manufacture of wooden articles inlaid with wire. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £1441; from taxes, £1184, or 1s. 3⅛d. per head of population (18,601) within municipal limits.

Mai-pa-lan. — Revenue circle in the Bhúm-ma-wa-dí township, Toung-ngú District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Now includes the Bhúm-ma-wa-dí circle. Pop. (1877), 5600; gross revenue, £639.

Maipára.—River in Cuttack District, Bengal; the southern outlet by which the waters of the Bráhmaní find their way into the Bay of Bengal, the northern being known as the DHAMRA. The Bánsgarh, a tidal creek of the Maipára, runs southward, almost parallel to the coast, till it falls into the sea about 6 miles north of False Point Harbour. The mouth of the Maipára presents the usual obstacles of bars and high surf; and from its position to the south of Palmyras promontory, it is inadequately sheltered from the monsoon. But from November to March, native craft from the Madras coast engaged in the rice trade frequent the river. Just outside the entrance to the Maipára river lies a small island of the same name (lat. 20° 41′ 30″ N., long. 87° 6′ 15″ E.).

Mairwára.—Tract of country in Rájputána.—*See* MHAIRWARA.

Maisur. — State, District, and Town in Southern India. — *See* MYSORE.

Mai-za-lí. — Revenue circle in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 99 square miles. Flat and well-cultivated country to the south-east; mountainous in the west, the hills gradually sloping up towards the Arakan range. Pop. (1876-77), 2756; gross revenue, £834.

Majhaura. — *Parganá* in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Amsin, on the east by Akbarpur and Aldemau, on the south by Aldemau and Sultánpur, and on the west by Pachhimráth *parganás*. Intersected by two small rivers, the Madha and Biswi, which unite at the village of Báizpur; the combined stream henceforward taking the name of the Tons. The point of confluence, known as Dohte, is considered a place of great sanctity, as having been the residence of a holy hermit in the time of the *Rámáyana*. An annual fair held here is attended by 5000 or 6000 persons. Area of the *parganá*, 74 square miles, of which 43 are cultivated. Popula-

tion (1869), 45,203. Trade insignificant, carried on in three small villages. Government land revenue, £5730, being at the rate of 3s. $0\frac{7}{8}$d. per arable acre. Of the 164 villages comprising the *parganá*, 108 are held under *tálukdárí* and 56 under *zamíndárí* tenure.

Majhgáon.—Town in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* RAJAPUR.

Majithá.—Municipal town in Amritsar (Umritsur) District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 45′ 30″ N., long. 75° E.; pop. (1868), 6608, consisting of 1600 Hindus, 3044 Muhammadans, 1257 Síkhs, and 707 'others.' Distant from Amritsar 10 miles north-east. Founded by Mádu Jitha, a Ját, whose descendants, the Majithiá Sardárs, held high posts of honour under Ranjít Sinh, and still possess large landed property in the neighbourhood. The head of the family has residences both here and at Amritsar. Minor trade mart; large Government school. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £96, or $3\frac{5}{8}$d. per head of population (6388) within municipal limits.

Májra.—Town in Rohtak District, Punjab. Lat. 28° 40′ N., long. 76° 28′ 30″ E.; pop. (1868), 7908, consisting of 7788 Hindus and 120 Muhammadans. Agricultural centre, of no commercial importance.

Makhad.—Town in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab.—*See* MOKHAD.

Makhanpur.—Village in Cawnpore District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 26° 54′ N., and long. 80° 1′ 20″ E., on the route from Cawnpore to Fatehgarh, 34 miles north-west of the former town. The tomb of Mudar, a Musalmán saint, annually attracts a large concourse of pilgrims.

Mákhi.—Town in Unáo District, Oudh; situated 9 miles north of Unáo town, with which it is connected by two unmetalled lines of road. Pop. (1869), 4513, viz. 4379 Hindus and 134 Musalmáns. Two weekly markets. Small manufacture of pottery and silver ornaments. The village was founded about 1000 years ago by a Lodh chief named Mákhi, who gave it his own name. After the Lodhs had been expelled, some 400 years since, Rájá Isri Sinh, from Máinpuri, took possession of the place, which is still owned by his descendants.

Makrái.—Petty Native State in Hoshangábád District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 13,648 (of whom 9731 were Hindus), residing in 57 villages and 2704 houses; area, 215 square miles. Estimated gross revenue, £2200. The territory was formerly much larger, and included Kálíbhít and Chárwa; but the greater part was annexed by the Peshwá and Sindhia. The Rájá, who is a Gond, pays no tribute; and exercises civil, criminal, and executive jurisdiction, subject to the general control of the British Government. The succession is by primogeniture. Makrái itself (lat. 22° 4′ N., long. 77° 7′ 30″ E.) is an insignificant village, lying round a hill fort, which the Rájá inhabits; but there are some rich villages in the low-lying portion of the State.

Wheat, gram, and rice, gum, *mahua*, *chironjí*, and *archar* form the chief products. There are no manufactures; and though iron-ore exists, it is not regularly worked.

Maksudábád.—City in Bengal.—*See* MURSHIDABAD.

Maksúdangarh.—One of the petty States of the Bhopál Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India; a tributary of Gwalior. It lies on the right bank of the river Párbati. Area, about 81 square miles; estimated population in 1875, 9695; revenue, about £3100. The chief products of the State are opium and grain. The present chief (1878), Raghunáth Sinh, is a Khichi Rájput; he was born about 1849.

Mákúm.—Village in Lakhimpur District, Assam, on the Dihing river, about 20 miles east of Jáipur. In the neighbourhood are valuable deposits of coal and petroleum. The bed of coal has been traced for a distance of 13 miles; and it has been estimated that the marketable out-turn is 9 million tons. The quality is good, and water-carriage is readily available. In 1866, free grants for working both the coal and the petroleum were made by the Government to Mr. Goodenough, who devoted much capital to the enterprise. But the undertaking was recently suspended on the death of that gentleman.

Makúrti.—Peak in the Kúnda range, Nílgiri District, Madras. Lat. 11° 22′ 15″ N., long. 76° 33′ 30″ E.; elevation above sea level, 8402 feet. A favourite point for excursions.

Malabar.—A British District in the Madras Presidency, lying between 10° 15′ and 12° 18′ N. lat., and between 75° 14′ and 76° 52′ E. long. Bounded on the north by South Kanara; east by Coorg, the Nílgiris, and Coimbatore; south by the native States of Cochin and Travancore; and west by the Arabian Sea. Area, 6002 square miles; population (1871), 2,261,250. The administrative headquarters of the District are at CALICUT TOWN.

Derivation of Name.—The ancient name of the country and also of Travancore to its south was *Kérala*. The earliest mention of the modern name of *Malabar* or *Malayálam* ('the mountain region') is found in the Μαλε of the later Greeks. Cosmas Indicopleustes (545 A.D.) speaks of 'Malé, whence the pepper comes.' The full name Mala-bár seems to have been given by the Arabs. Ibn Batuta has Mulaibár; Marco Polo, Melibár. Lassen explains the affix *bár* as from the Sanskrit *vara*, 'a region.' Bishop Caldwell prefers Colonel Yule's view, that the termination is the Persian *bár* (Arabic *barr*, suggested by Gundert) of Zanzibár; it is, however, perhaps ultimately identical with the final syllable of Márwár, Dhárwár, etc., 'continent,' or 'coast.'

Jurisdiction.—By the treaty of Seringapatam, concluded on the 18th March 1792, Malabar was ceded along with other tracts to the East India Company, and placed under the Bombay Presidency. Several chiefs

who had been in quasi-political relations with the Company previous to the cession, were continued in the position of feudatories for a few years, and exercised more or less independent authority within their own limits. This led to difficulties culminating in the Kotiote Pychi rebellion. In 1796, a Commission was appointed, consisting of 4 members, with which the Supervisorship was incorporated. The feudatories were deprived of all administrative authority, their lands being secured to them in full proprietory right, and a special allowance (*malikána*) made to them. The two Superintendentships were abolished in 1800, and a number of European Collectors were appointed, one to every district or *táluk*. At the end of that year, the Province was transferred to the Madras Presidency. The Commission was finally abolished in September 1801, and the District placed under a principal Collector and 3 Subordinate Collectors, who are now respectively designated Sub-collector, Head Assistant Collector, and Special Assistant Collector; besides whom, there are one or more European Assistants, two Deputy Collectors in charge of sea customs, salt, and the treasury at the *sadr* (headquarters) station, and a separate Deputy Collector in charge of the Wainád Subdivision. In 1803, 2 *zilá* courts were established at Tellicheri and Calicut, with a provincial or circuit court presided over by 3 Judges, whose jurisdiction extended from North Kanara to Cochin. In 1827, the *zilá* court of North Malabar was converted into an auxiliary court, and one of the same designation established at Cochin. These courts were abolished in 1843, to make room for the civil courts. The District is now divided into 2 *zilás* of North and South Malabar, under 2 District Judges. A special Assistant Collector for the Moplá country has his headquarters at Malapuram, the military outpost; while a European Deputy Collector, who is also a District *munsíf*, has charge of the mountainous *táluk* of Wainád, and resides at Manantádi (Manantoddy).

Physical Aspects.—Malabar is singularly diversified in its configuration. From eastward, the great range of the Western Gháts, only interrupted by the Palghát gap, looks down on a country, broken by long spurs, extensive ravines, dense forests, and tangled jungles. Stretching westward, gentler slopes, rolling downs, and gradually widening valleys, closely cultivated, succeed the forest-clad uplands, till nearer the seaboard the low laterite tablelands shelve into rice plains and backwaters fringed with cocoa-nut palms. Numerous rivers have hollowed out for themselves long valleys to the coast, where, meeting the littoral currents, they discharge into a line of backwaters. The District extends along the coast for 145 miles; its breadth varies from 25 miles on the north to 70 on the south. The coast runs in a south-easterly direction, and forms a few headlands and small bays, with a natural harbour in the south at Cochin. The seaboard may be

considered pretty open, except to the north-west, where stands the island and hill of Mount Dilli (885 feet), a bold eminence of laterite and gneiss, and a conspicuous landmark to mariners. In the south, there is a considerable extent of tableland; but generally the fall of the hills is steep, with ledges of rocks along the crest. The rocks are chiefly gneiss, and the geological formation primary. The mountains of the WESTERN GHATS, varying from 3000 to 5000 feet above sea level on the Coorg and Wainád slopes, and reaching 7000 and even higher on the Kúnda face, run almost parallel to the coast. Here and there they branch off to the westward, forming large valleys, while abreast of Calicut they recede to the eastward, and form with the Wayut Hills (Camel's Hump) the valleys of Ernad. On the north, the Gháts join the higher mountains on the western face of the Kúndas. The portion of the range eastward from the Kúndas as far as the lofty mountains north of Palghát, is comparatively low; it encloses a tract of 200 square miles known as the Attapádi valley, where rise the headwaters of the Bhaváni river. Perhaps one of the most striking features in the country is the PALGHAT gap, a complete opening, some 25 miles across, in the great backbone of the Peninsula. Here, by whatever natural agency the break occurred, the mountains appear thrown back and heaped up, as if some overwhelming deluge had burst through, sweeping them to left and right. On either hand tower the giant Nílgiris and Anamaláis, overtopping the chain of Gháts by several thousand feet; while through the gap the south-west winds bring pleasant air and grateful showers to the thirsty plains of Coimbatore. The unique character—as a point of physical geography—of this gap in an otherwise unbroken wall of high mountains, 600 miles long, is only equalled by its economic value to the countries lying on either hand of it. Several *gháts* or passes connect the coast with Mysore, Coorg, the Wainád, and Cochin.

The District is intersected by many rivers and minor streams, navigable inland for a few miles above tidal influence, and all having their sources in the Western Gháts. The chief of these are—the Beliapatam, rising in Coorg, and falling into the sea below Beliapatam; the Darmapatám, rising in the Wainád; the Kota, navigable from the sea for a distance of 20 miles; the Mahe; the Beypur river, which breaks through the Gháts to the north of Karkúr in a long succession of cataracts, and enters the sea at Beypur; the Kadelundi, and the Ponani. The last-named river, flowing through a rocky country, is much broken by rapids; but in time of flood the volume of water is sufficient to float large timber down to the coast, a purpose for which this stream is largely used.

One of the most characteristic features of Malabar is the all but continuous chain of lagoons or backwaters lying parallel to the coast,

which have been formed by the action of the waves and shore currents in obstructing the waters of the numerous rivers. Of these backwaters, the most important are—the Kavái and Beliapatam in the north; the Payangadi, Quilandi, and Elatúr in the middle of the coast line; and the Chetwái and Kodungalúr in the south. There are two fresh-water lakes, one at Tanúr, comparatively unimportant, but the other, the Trichúr or Yenamakal Lake, of great value, and deserving notice for the singular struggle of human industry against the forces of Nature, which the cultivation of its bed demands. At the close of the rains, the water in this lake—which is protected from tidal influences by a dam—rapidly subsides, and every foot of ground is planted with well-grown seedlings, as soon as the flood recedes far enough. As the dry weather advances, the bed of the lake presents a magnificent expanse of the most luxuriant rice. With the early thunder-harbingers of the south-west monsoon in April, commences the struggle with the slowly but steadily rising floods. The low earth-banks that enclose convenient areas are repaired, and numberless Persian wheels bristle in their bamboo frameworks. Thousands of the population, many of them good caste Nair women, are seen perched high above the scene on these machines, continuing the day and night contest for the preservation of their crops. The bulwarks of the advanced fields are frequently breached, and the immature crop is drowned. Often a large area has to be reaped by simply heading the stalks from boats; but, as a rule, an enormously rich crop rewards this remarkable industry.

The inland navigation is so extensive that the trade of the country is in a great measure conducted by water; principal commodities, fire-wood, rice, pepper, dry grains, country vegetables and condiments, jack, plantain, and mango. Teak and other timber and bamboos are floated down from Irikúr, the Anamaláis, and Nilambúr to the coast depôts. The affluents of the Cochin backwater also bring down timber for export from that town. The castes living by fishing number nearly 30,000, or 2·6 per cent. of the whole male population. No revenue has ever been derived from leasing fisheries, but a flourishing trade in fishcuring is carried on at the seaports. The value of the exports of salt-fish to Ceylon is about £20,000 per annum. The forests of Malabar are extensive and of great value, but they are almost entirely private property. The few tracts conserved have come into Government hands by escheat or by contract. Wild animals include elephant, bison, *sámbhar*, spotted deer, tiger, panther, hog, Nílgiri ibex, hyæna, and bear. Small game is very abundant, and there are many varieties of fish.

History.—The early history of Malabar is inseparable from that of the adjoining State of Travancore. Identical in people, language, laws, customs, and climate, the whole seaboard from the Chandragiri

river to Cape Comorin, and between the western mountains and the sea—the ancient Kerala, in fact—is homogeneous in every respect, except in the accident of a divided political administration. To trace the successive waves—it may have been of invasion, or of peaceful colonization—that are now represented by the Cherumars, Tiyans, Nairs, and Nambúris, overlying one another in social strata, or to examine the physical justification for the legendary origin of this interesting country, would be beyond the scope of this article. But it is probable that the later flood of immigration, which gave to Kerala its Nairs and Nambúris, was part of a general movement southward, which in all but prehistoric times brought the best of its people, and its Bráhmanism, to the rest of Southern India; and it is also likely that the physical formation of Kerala was due to some natural process—gradual or convulsive—which gave colour to its legendary origin. In its early political history, there is reason to suppose that the Chola and, later, the Chera kings exercised a more or less defined authority in Malabar. The first tangible figure that emerges from the mist of tradition is Cherumán Perumál, the last of the Viceroys. He is represented as voluntarily resigning his throne, subdividing his kingdom, and retiring to Mecca to adopt Muhammadanism. This last suggestion would make his date at least as late as the 7th century, but the epoch usually assigned to him is about the middle of the 4th. It is probable that if the resignation and partition did take place, it was forced on the ruler by the growing power and turbulence of the chiefs. From this time Malabar remained divided among numerous small chieftains, of whom Kolástri or Cherakal in the north, and the Zamorin (or *Samuri*) in the south, were the most conspicuous; and it was with these two, and the Cochin Rájá, that the early Portuguese adventurers first entered into relations. Vasco da Gama visited Malabar in 1498; and his successors speedily established themselves at Cochin, Calicut, and Cannanore. In 1656, the Dutch appeared in the Indian seas, to compete with the Portuguese for the trade of the country. They conquered Cannanore; and in 1663, captured the town and fort of Cochin, as well as Tangacheri, from their rivals. In 1717, they secured the cession of the island of Chetwái from the Zamorin. But in the next half-century, their power began to wane; Cannanore was sold to the Cannanore family (Bibi), represented at that time by Bamali Rájá, in 1771, Chetwái was conquered by Haidar in 1776, and Cochin captured by the English in 1795. The French first settled in 1720 at Mahe, in 1752 obtained a footing at Calicut, and in 1754 acquired Mount Dilli, and a few outposts in the north, all of which fell into the hands of the English in 1761. Their frequent wars with the English ended in the destruction of their commerce in the East, Mahe having been thrice taken and restored. The English had established themselves

in 1664 at Calicut, in 1683 at Tellicheri, and by 1714 at Anjengo, Chetwái, and other commercial factories. Tellicheri became their chief entrepôt for the pepper trade; and so rapid was the extension of their power and influence, that in 1727 the factors mediated a peace between the princes of Kanara and Kolástri. They obtained the exclusive privilege of purchasing the valuable products of the country, viz. pepper, cardamoms, and sandal-wood. For nearly a century the Marhattá pirates under Angria and other chiefs infested the coast, and ravaged even inland towns, by sailing up the rivers of Beypur, Ponani, etc., till 1756, when they were hunted out by a British expedition. The Ikeri or Bednúr Rájá, in 1736 and 1751, invaded the country of Kolástri, and imposed fines on the northern division. The Palghát State, after a dismemberment by the Rájás of Calicut and Cochin, sought the alliance of Mysore, then ruled by its Hindu Rájá, who stationed a subsidiary force in Palghát; and it was this connection which afforded Haidar Alí, when he became Regent of Mysore, a pretext for invading Malabar in defence of his ally, the Palghát Achen. In 1760, Haidar sent an army to Palghát, and descended the *ghâts* through Coorg, in person. Again, in 1766, at the instigation of Alí Rájá, the Moplá chieftain of Cannanore, he made an easy conquest of the whole country, the Rájás flying into the jungles or taking refuge in the English settlement of Tellicheri. They, however, took advantage of the war between Haidar and the English in 1768 to reinstate themselves, until 1774, when Haidar again passed down the *ghâts* with two armies, and completely subjugated the country, the Hindu chiefs retiring to Travancore and Tellicheri. On war breaking out between the English and French in 1778, Haidar resented the asylum granted by the former to refugees in 1769, and commenced hostilities by investing the Tellicheri fort. The siege was prosecuted in a fitful manner for two years, till reinforcements arrived from Bombay, when it was raised by a sortie, whose success was so complete as practically to annihilate the besieging army. Peace intervened between 1784 and 1788, when Tipú Sultán, son and successor of Haidar, descended the *ghâts*, and commenced a religious persecution of the people. This produced a rebellion; and on the breaking out of the war between him and the British in 1790, the refugee chiefs were encouraged by proclamation to join the British cause. The contest terminated in the cession of Malabar (except Wainád) to the Company by the treaty of peace dated 18th March 1792. The Commissioners appointed by the Bombay Government immediately reinstated the Rájás and chiefs in their possessions, and made a settlement with them for the revenue. The measures taken for the introduction of a civil Government have already been detailed; but for some years the peace was persistently broken by the Kotiote Rájá in the north,

and by Moplá leaders in the south. For ten years (1795-1805) these rebels and other turbulent chiefs kept the military regularly employed. Since that time, save occasional Moplá outbreaks, the peace of the District has been undisturbed.

Moplá outrages, which now generally originate in mixed motives, partly agrarian and partly fanatical, have long been a distinct feature in Malabar history. Lawlessness and violence had characterised the disposition and conduct of the inland Moplás during the latter epoch of Tipú's ascendancy, and the earlier years of British rule; and successful measures of repression are associated with the name of 'Manjeri Watson,' and his local Nair levies. The spirit, however, remained, and incentives for its occasional outburst have not been wanting. The more recent instances have generally taken the form of resentment against some unreasonable Hindu (*Kafir*) landlord, or against hostile witnesses in our civil courts. The assassination of one of these surrounds the murderer with sympathizing co-religionists; and as, besides wreaking their fanatical vengeance on its primary object, they invariably contemplate selling their lives in a contest with the representatives of (in their eyes) an infidel Government, these outbreaks have assumed a serious aspect. The fatal resolve once taken, these pseudo-martyrs (*shahíd*) meet in a sacrificial feast (*maulúd*), divorce their wives, and spend an interval in religious observances. Once they have struck the first blow, they set the law at defiance, often committing further murders, and burning and defiling Hindu temples and houses, till they encounter troops sent to annihilate them; upon these they throw themselves with the despair of fanaticism, selling their lives as dearly as possible. Experience has shown that native sepoys cannot be relied on to deal with these outbreaks with the firmness which the circumstances demand. A special police force organized in 1851 was also found unequal to the work. Since the very serious outbreak near Manjeri in 1849, when sixty-four fanatics were destroyed in hand-to-hand encounter with a detachment of H.M.'s 94th Regiment, the employment of European troops has been found necessary. The gallant Wyse, his *subahdár*, and others were killed on this occasion. In 1851, another serious disaster occurred at Kolatúr; and in the same year, a detachment of British infantry was established at Malepur, the centre of the most menaced districts, which is still maintained. In 1852, the spirit of outrage spread to North Malabar; and a dreadful tragedy occurred at Mattanúr, near Tellicheri, involving the destruction of thirty to forty lives. In the following year, the 'Moplá Outrage Act' was passed, providing a system of fining all the Moplá inhabitants of the *amshoms* in which outbreaks should occur; but, unhappily, it was not at once brought into force. The fanatical Arab high priest or *tángal* of Tiruvengádi, Sayyid Fazl, was suspected

of fomenting these outbreaks; and he certainly conferred his blessing on the murderous projects of his disciples (*múrid*). Under measures taken by Mr. Conolly, the Magistrate, in 1853, this man had to leave the country, never to return. Two years later, when Mr. Conolly was sitting in his verandah in the evening, a body of well-known fanatics, who had recently escaped from the Calicut jail, rushed in, and hacked him to pieces in his wife's presence. Then, for the first time, the Moplá Act was put in force, and heavy fines enacted. The last outbreak (also at Kolatúr) occurred in 1873, when a gang, nine in number, charged a detachment of the 43d (Queen's), and were all shot down, and heavy fines were again imposed on the Moplá inhabitants of the implicated *amshoms*. The *amshom*, though now the usual territorial subdivision of Malabar, is not of local origin; *nád*, country, and *deshom*, village, are the local divisions of the coast Districts. The latter is in all respects the Hindu village, except that the population of these Districts is not collected together in clusters of houses, but are scattered over their cultivated land, along roadsides, and the like. On the introduction of the land revenue system after the Muhammadan conquest in 1784, the country was, after Mysore model, divided into *hoblis*. These were found too large for the English *rayatwárí* and *tálukwárí* administration, and were divided so as to constitute 452 *amshoms*, comprising upwards of 2000 *deshoms* or villages.

Population.—In 1802, the population was estimated at 465,594; in 1823, at 927,705; in 1837, at 1,165,489; and in 1861-62, at 1,709,081. In 1871, a careful Census disclosed a total of 2,261,250 persons; average density, 376·7 to the square mile. Divided according to race, the number of Hindus was 1,637,914; of Muhammadans, 581,609; of Europeans, 2579; of Eurasians, 5409; of native Christians, 32,280; of Jains, 31; and of 'others,' 1428. Among Hindu castes, Bráhmans numbered 42,697; Kshattriyas, 588; Chetties (traders and cultivators), 27,904; Nairs (Vellalars), 327,211; Tiyans, 534,602.

The early history of the Moplás (converts to Islám from various castes), like that of the Labbays of the eastern coast, is not accurately known. It is said that in 844 A.D., an Arab ship, or *bagala*, was wrecked on the island of Chalium formed by the Beypur and Kadelundi rivers. The crew were received in great favour by the local ruler, and lands were granted to them. They were followed by other arrivals, possibly including some enthusiastic missionaries bent on proselytizing. It was the policy of the Zamorin to encourage trade with foreign countries; and in course of time the settlers, their descendants and converts, became a power in the land. Hindus found an easy refuge from their own stringent caste laws, which debarred them from seafaring pursuits, in the open arms of Islám. It is known, from the Dutch records, that in the 16th and 17th centuries the

Zamorin encouraged the work of conversion. From the Moslem ranks alone could his war-boats be manned, and apostasy was the simplest means of providing sailors to cope with the Portuguese at sea. When this political need had passed away, the Moplás remained and increased, adding much by their industry to the material wealth of the country, and not a little to its social and political difficulties. To the arrogance of the strictly honest and austerely religious Nair, the Moplá — ignorant, bigoted, priest-ridden — opposed fanatical hatred, and, when driven beyond bearing, open outrage and murder. Things are better now than they were. English rule has done much; the Moplá knife perhaps something; but more than all has special legislation contributed to bring about a better understanding, and to establish the necessity of mutual toleration. But the relations between Nair landlord and Moplá tenant a few years ago formed a close parallel to the worst days of the Protestant ascendancy in Ulster. These relations, unhappily, still subsist, and in their more recent development present features not without anxiety for the future.

A few members of the Nazarani or Syrian sect of Christians are found in the southern extremity of Malabar, who ascribe their origin to the preaching of St. Thomas the Apostle. They have survived here and in Travancore the bitter persecution of the Roman missionaries. The Eurasians on this coast are the descendants of the Portuguese, Dutch, French, and early English settlers; the names of the Portuguese grandees still live in the descendants of their servants and followers.

Religion.—The proportion of Hindus in the total population is 72 per cent. There are no Buddhists or members of the Bráhma Samáj. The Syrian Christians have one church in the south of the District. The Roman Catholics have several villages and churches. The existing mission was founded by the Carmelite Order in 1656. Nearly the whole of Malabar forms part of the jurisdiction of the Bishopric of Mangalore, while the remainder is under the See of Virapoli, an inland village of Travancore. Besides primary schools, the Christian Brothers have three convents—at Cannanore, Calicut, and Cochin. From Cochin to Kavái, in the north, there are native Catholic communities, whose chief occupation is fishing and cultivating vegetables. The Protestant Basil Mission, established in 1839, has founded churches and schools at Cannanore, Tellicheri, Calicut, and Palghát, with branch establishments at Chombla, south of Tellicheri, and Kodakel, near Tanúr. A steady increase is observable in the native Christian population; thus in 1856-57, it was 23,614; in 1861-62, 27,539; in 1866-67, 30,435; and in 1871-72, 41,642. The Census Report of 1871, however, only returns the number of native Christians at 32,280. This is due chiefly to the conversion of low-caste Hindus, who gain in social position by the change.

There are 5 municipalities in Malabar—namely, CANNANORE, the most northern seaport, and a military cantonment, with a pop. (1871) of 10,265; TELLICHERI (pop. 20,479); CALICUT, the capital, with 48,338 inhabitants; COCHIN (pop. 13,588); and PALGHAT, the largest inland town of Malabar (pop. 31,115),—all of which see separately. Other towns and villages of importance are also described in separate articles, but the populations given of these places are not those of the actual towns and villages, but of the *deshoms* or circles in which they are respectively situated.

Agriculture.—The District comprises an area of 6002 square miles, or 5,698,415 acres; of which about 1,146,544 acres are under cultivation; about 2,672,711 acres are waste, but capable of cultivation; while 1,859,260 acres are uncultivable. Rice occupies 387,355 acres; gingelly and other 'dry' cultivation, 398,848 acres. Rice (*arsi*) forms the staple crop of the District, and is also largely imported. *Cholam*, *rágí*, *chama*, are grown, but not largely; also gingelly seed, castor-oil seed, gram of several kinds, *tennai*, coffee, pepper, ginger, arrowroot, cardamoms, chillies, onions, garlic, cocoa-nut, areca or betel nut, cinnamon. As soon as the first showers have fallen in March or April, agricultural operations commence. The fields are manured after a slight ploughing with ashes, leaves (decayed and green), and in some places salt mud. No system of irrigation is practised beyond diverting over the fields the stream flowing down each valley. Some of the most fertile lands in the District are thus brought under 'wet' cultivation. But the abundant and never-failing rainfall places the Malabar farmer beyond the necessity of artificial irrigation. Rice is sometimes sown broadcast, but is usually transplanted from nursery beds. The first or *kanny* crop is sown in April and May, and cut in August and September. The second or *magarom* crop is sown in September and October, and reaped in January and February. These are the principal rice harvests, but there are intermediate crops in some places; and a third, known as *punja*, is sown in February, and reaped in April or May. The greater portion of the land, however, bears only one crop. Within the last twenty years, rice cultivation has considerably extended, but very little improvement has taken place in the quality of the rice, although experiments have been tried in the District with Carolina paddy. Cocoa-nut gardens form one of the greatest sources of commercial wealth in the Province. The exported value of cocoa-nut products is estimated at nearly a million sterling annually. Pepper and spices yield over a quarter of a million. Of 'dry' cultivation, rice (*moden*) grown on the uplands, oil-seeds (*yellu*), *cholam*, *rágí*, and various pulses are the most extensively grown. The *yellu* and *moden* are subject to a special land tax. *Ponam* (elsewhere known as *kumári* or *iúm*) cultivation, by burning the forests, is taxed on the area culti-

vated; and coffee land in the Wainád pays 2 rupees (4s.) per planted acre.

As a rule, the peasantry of the District are well off, and not in debt. They sell their crops, and do not part with them merely to pay off advances from money-lenders. The wages of artisans and labourers have been steadily increasing. Coolies, who in 1800 earned 1½d., and in 1850, 3d., made in 1876-77, 7½d. a day; and skilled workmen, whose wage in 1850 varied from 7½d. to 9d., earned in 1876-77 from 1s. to 1s. 3d. Agricultural labourers are always paid in kinds, at the daily rate of about 5 lbs. of rice for a man and 4 lbs. for a woman.

Land Tenure.—All land in Malabar is, by immemorial inheritance, private property in fee-simple (*jenmam*). No more absolute proprietory right, no more indefeasible title, could well be conceived than that of the Malabar *jenmi.* Together with this ancient right of the owner, co-exists a complete and well-understood tenant right; no right of eviction vests in the proprietor, without the precedent obligation of paying compensation for improvements made by the tenant. These two leading principles which underlie all landholding in the Province, aided by a third, viz. that of a land tax practically fixed in perpetuity, have given to property in Malabar a very high value. Below the *jenmam*, or full proprietory right, numerous sub-tenures of graduated value are found — from a permanent leaseholder on a peppercorn rent to a rackrented tenant-at-will. There are many varieties of these tenures, each with its own name and conditions; and they are all confirmed by documents of traditional form.

Natural Calamities.—The District has hitherto enjoyed immunity from extensive natural calamities, such as blight, flood, or drought; and such a disaster as an entire failure of the south-west monsoon has been unknown to the present or preceding generation. When, however, the neighbouring Districts to the east suffer from scarcity, as in 1866-67 and 1877-78, this Province, which ordinarily disposes of some of its produce in exchange for grain, is affected by the prevalence of high prices. Scarcity was felt in 1866 in the early part of the year, when the prices of all articles of food rose abnormally high. Towards the end of 1876, owing to the scanty fall of rain, the season was most unfavourable; and there was a serious failure of the *magarom* or second rice crop, which, with the demand from outside, materially affected prices, though the import trade in grain was unusually active in supplying, not only Malabar, but (through Malabar) several of the famine-stricken Districts to the eastward.

Means of Communication.—The District is fairly supplied with main lines of communication. Besides cart-tracks, there are 400 miles of good road, costing £7000 annually to maintain. An extensive sea-

board, with backwaters running parallel to it, affords easy means of transit; whilst the artificial canals made to connect these backwaters give a continuous water communication along the coast, of 77 miles from Cochin to the railway station of Tirúr, of 43 miles from Beypur to Badagara, and again of 22 miles from Beliapatam to the frontiers of South Kanara. The Sultán's canal, connecting the Kavái and Pyengadi rivers, is about 2 miles long, cut through low paddy ground. It was made by Alí Rájá of Cannanore, when he had the management of the Cherakál country under Haidar Alí in 1766, to secure inland navigation from the village of Kakád, 2 miles north-east of Cannanore, to Nileshwar in South Kanara. Previously all boats had to round Mount Dilli, a route impracticable during the monsoons. The canals are on an average between 10 to 12 feet broad, and 1 or 2 to 3 and 4 feet deep at low water, and are intended only for small boats. None of them is in a state of efficiency at all times, and 8 miles of cutting are required to connect the Tanúr Canal with the Kadelundi and Beypur rivers. It is, however, in contemplation to complete a good navigable canal from Tirúr to Cochin, and push the work on eventually from Badagara to Mahe, Tellicheri, and Cannanore. The Madras Railway traverses the southern part of the District for a total distance of 89 miles, from Walliar to Beypur.

Manufactures and Trade.—Except the manufacture of cloth, tiles, bricks, etc., in the German mission establishments at Calicut and Cannanore, and that of coarse cloth and mats at Palghát, there are no local manufactures deserving of mention. The weaving of calico, which derived its name from Calicut, seems to have altogether died out, while unsuccessful attempts have been made to manufacture canvas at Beypur, and silk at Palghát. The trade of the District is carried on chiefly at permanent markets; and the principal seats of commerce are CANNANORE, TELLICHERI, BADAGARA, CALICUT, PALGHAT, and COCHIN. In 1876-77, the value of the imports (which were abnormally increased by the famine demand for rice) amounted to £1,765,200, of which £1,118,000 was for rice; that of the exports to £2,466,000, of which £960,000 represented coffee, and £170,000 rice re-exported. No native banking establishments exist in the District, but every Malayali is either lender or borrower, and the trading community readily avail themselves of the European banks at Calicut, Cochin, and Tellicheri. The pepper trade is older than the Arabian Nights, and probably dates from before the Christian era.

In 1797, a plantation was opened by Government on the waste lands at Randaterra, a small tract lying between Cannanore and Tellicheri, for the cultivation of special products, such as coffee, pepper, cinnamon, cassia, cotton, sugar-cane, etc. The cinnamon plantation, the only one

in the District, is still in existence; but the estate was laid waste by the Pychi rebels in 1803, and was subsequently sold by the Company. After the termination of the rebellion in 1805, and the pacification of the country, the Sub-Collector, Mr. H. Baber, turned his attention to coffee-planting in Wainád; and by 1840, this important industry was fairly established. Since 1850, it has increased greatly, and continues to prosper. Including the portions of the Wainád *táluk* transferred to the Nílgiri District, there are about 40,000 acres planted, of which 27,000 belong to Europeans. Gold and iron are found in the District, and laterite is quarried.

Administration.—Malabar has been, from time to time, subject to certain special revenue arrangements, including a tobacco monopoly, a land tax on pepper, and a Government farm of cardamoms, gold-washing, and the like. All these have now been abolished. The tobacco monopoly, which lasted for forty-six years, and yielded at one time £80,000 per annum, was given up in 1853, as it led to much smuggling, lawlessness, and loss of life. The pepper land tax was surrendered in 1806, as the spice already paid a very heavy transit duty, which was abolished in 1846; and the minor farms followed in 1868.

	1793.	1850-51.	1860-61.	1870-71.
Revenue, ...	£92,514	£284,051	£291,279	£402,614
Expenditure, . . .	...	50,082	60,677	56,703

The principal source of revenue is the land tax, which yielded in 1860-61, £175,137, and in 1870-71, £191,832.

The judicial courts consist of the 2 District courts of North and South Malabar, 3 sub-courts, 15 District *munsifs'*, 1 District Magistrate's, 3 Joint Magistrates', 3 Assistant Magistrates', 3 Deputy Magistrates', and 24 Sub-Magistrates'. There is a central jail at Cannanore, besides 4 District jails, at Tellicheri, Calicut, Cochin, and Palghát, and 24 lock-ups. The total cost of this department to Government in 1870 was £7000. The aggregate strength of the police in 1871 was 1080 men, costing £15,016, giving 1 constable to every 5½ square miles and to every 2094 inhabitants. In 1874-75, the District contained a total of 473 schools, with 21,351 pupils. The high-class institutions are the Provincial School at Calicut, the Brennen Zilá School at Tellicheri, the Palghát High School, and the 'Kerala Vidya Sala,' recently established by the Zamorin, for the instruction of the young noblemen of his family, and of other influential persons in the District. Nearly 100 schools are exclusively confined to Moplás. There are several printing

presses at Calicut and Cochin, and at the latter port are published two English and two Malayálam newspapers.

Medical Aspects.—Malabar, like the rest of South-Western India, is characterised by a heavy rainfall, a humid climate, and a moderate temperature. The south-west monsoon sets in early in May, bringing with it heavy clouds, which bank up against the Ghát range. This is the hottest time of the year; the air is close and heavy and frequently overcharged with electricity. Early in June 'the monsoon breaks,' and for three to four months the rains are frequent, heavy, and often continuous for several days. The rainfall in June, July, and August averages 80 inches, or two-thirds of the total fall for the year. The temperature improves, and the climate during the rains is pleasant and healthy. By October, the rains have slackened, and the north-east monsoon sets in, bringing cool breezes from the wet tableland of Mysore and Coorg, and reducing the temperature. In December, the thermometer sometimes falls to 60° F. in the shade. The hot weather commences as the north-east monsoon fails (about February), and continues till May. In March and April, there are frequent thunderstorms, betokening the coming of the south-west monsoon. The thermometer in the hot weather rises to 92° F. in the shade. On the whole, the climate is healthy. The principal diseases are small-pox, dysentery, and fever. The reported death-rate, from a not very trustworthy source, is 22·1 per mille. Cattle suffer from murrain and foot and mouth disease, but no epidemic rinderpest has been recorded.

Málágarh.—Village in Bulandshahr District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 1886. Distant from Delhi 38 miles south-east; from Bulandshahr 4 miles north. Large grain depôt; village school. Formerly known as Rathora, and owned by Gaur Rájputs. Before the Marhattá supremacy, Hakdád Khán, Amíl of Baran, purchased the Rájput rights, built a mud fort and market, and changed the name to Málágarh, in honour of a local Muhammadan saint. The Marhattás occupied the place in 1792. On the British occupation, Mádhu Ráo, the Marhattá *jágírdár*, opposed the new Government, and ordered Col. Skinner to leave the *jágír*. Skinner refused, and the Marhattá leader attacked him, but was repulsed with the loss of almost all his infantry. Skinner next invested the fort, and Mádhu Ráo surrendered. Bahádur Khán, son of Hakdád Khán, then received from the British Government a lease of this and 35 other villages, which lapsed on his death in 1824. His son, Walidád Khán, obtained a small allowance, which he held till 1857. Meanwhile, Walidád's niece had married a son of the King of Delhi; and on this account, when the Mutiny broke out, he was appointed *subahdár* of Baran (Bulandshahr) and Koil (Alígarh) by the rebel king. Walidád Khán proved one of the most turbulent and dangerous insurgent leaders; but on the fall of Delhi, Col. Greathed's

column defeated his forces, and razed to the ground the fort of Málágarh. During the operations necessary for blowing up the walls, Lieut. Home, the hero of the Kashmír Gate at Delhi, lost his life.

Malai-soh-mat (or *Malaichamat*). — Petty State in the Khási Hills, Assam. Pop. (1872), 299; revenue, £90, chiefly from dues on lime-quarries. The presiding chief, whose title is *siem*, is named U Shongnam Sinh. The principal products are rice, millet, *tezpát* or bay-leaves, ginger, and oranges. Limestone is quarried, and mats are manufactured.

Málanchá.—Estuary in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. One of the principal arms of the Bay of Bengal. Lat. 21° 42′ N., long. 89° 26′ E. This name is given to the combined stream of the KABADAK and KHOLPETUA as it approaches the sea. The Málanchá is situated from 4 to 6 miles eastward of the RAIMANGAL estuary, and has a channel running to seaward in a south-westerly direction, with a depth of 6 or 7 fathoms near the land, decreasing to 3½ or 4 fathoms. The 'Swatch of No-ground' lies due south of this river.

Maláun.—Hill fort in Hindúr State, Punjab; situated in lat. 31° 12′ N., long. 76° 52′ E., on the crest of a ridge bearing the same name, and rising from the left bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj) to the sub-Himálayan range. The fort occupies a narrow hog's-back, only 30 yards in width, sloping down rapidly some 2000 feet on either side toward the Gamrára and the Gambhar. In 1815, the Gúrkha forces under Amar Sinh were shut up in Maláun, after being driven from all other posts in the western hills by General Ochterlony. The British engineers constructed a road practicable for heavy artillery up the difficult heights; and, a battery being formed close to the fort, the Gúrkhas surrendered at once, and evacuated, by the terms of capitulation, all the hill States west of the river Káli. Elevation above sea level, 4448 feet.

Maláyagirí.—One of the principal peaks in Orissa, Bengal, in the State of Pál Lahára, in lat. 21° 22′ 20″ N., long. 85° 18′ 41″ E. A magnificent mountain, 3895 feet high, towering above the lesser ranges, with building space and water on its summit.

Maldah.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, occupying an eastern projection of the Bhágalpur Division, to which it was transferred from the Rájsháhí-cum-Kuch Behar Division in 1876. It lies between 24° 29′ 50″ and 25° 32′ 30″ N. lat., and between 87° 48′ and 88° 33′ 30″ E. long., the Ganges river forming the continuous western and south-western boundary. Area (according to the Parliamentary Abstract for 1878), 1813 square miles; population (according to the Census of 1872), 676,426 persons. The administrative headquarters are at ENGLISH BAZAR, on the right bank of the Mahánandá.

Physical Aspects.—The District is divided into two nearly equal

portions by the Mahánandá river, flowing from north to south. The western tract, between the Mahánandá and the main stream of the Ganges, is a low-lying alluvial plain of sandy soil and great fertility. Old channels of the Ganges are numerous, and around the ruins of Gaur stretch many artificial lakes and wild wastes of swamp and jungle. The eastern half is an elevated region, broken by the deep valleys of the Tángan and Purnábhabá and their tributary *nálás*. The soil of this tract is a hard red clay; and the whole is overgrown with thorny tree jungle, locally known as the *kátál*. Agricultural prosperity centres on the Mahánandá, where mango orchards and high raised plots of mulberry land extend continuously along both banks of the river.

The Ganges only skirts the District, forming a natural boundary from the north-west corner to the extreme south. Its flood waters, as deflected from the hills of Rájmahál, are perpetually exercising a diluviating influence on the Maldah bank, which is everywhere low and composed of loose sand. Among many former channels and deserted backwaters, the little winding stream of the Bhágirathi deserves mention, as being the historical river-bed that defended the city of Gaur, and as still retaining its ancient sanctity. The Mahánandá flows in a deep, well-defined channel through the centre of the District, and joins the Ganges at the southern corner. Its tributaries are, on the right bank, the Kálíndrí, which anastomoses with the Ganges near the river mart of Háyatpur; and, on the left bank, the Tángan and Purnábhabá, which bring down the drainage of Dinájpur, and are crowded with country boats during the brief rainy season.

History.—The area now included within Maldah District supplied two great capitals to the early Muhammadan kings of Bengal; and at the present day the sites of GAUR and PANDUAH exhibit the most interesting remains to be found in the lower Gangetic valley. The ruins of Gaur, lying between the Mahánandá and the Ganges, are scattered over an area of more than 20 square miles. The foundation of this city is referred back to the remotest antiquity. It was the Hindu metropolis of Bengal before the Musalmán conquest, and continued to be the capital of the Afghán invaders for at least three centuries. Its downfall is assigned to the period when the Mughal Emperor Akbar established his supremacy over the Province of Bengal, and his Viceroys transferred the seat of Government across the Ganges to Rájmahál. According to the received account, a pestilence fell upon the city in 1575 A.D., the year of its first occupation by the Mughals; thousands died every day, and the survivors fled, never to return to their deserted homes. Such is the tragic story of the Muhammadan chroniclers, and its leading incident is borne out by the malarious character of the neighbourhood at the present day. Panduah or Peruah, which lies about 20 miles north-east from Gaur beyond the Mahánandá, superseded the latter city

as the seat of Government during the reigns of five successive Afghán monarchs, towards the close of the 14th century. Its site does not offer any attractions beyond a natural inaccessibility; and to this same cause is, doubtless, due the comparatively good condition of the ruins. Here is to be seen the most perfect example of Pathán architecture in all India, as represented by the Adinah Masjíd. It is noteworthy that all the buildings at Panduah are constructed with stones, which show by their carving that they have been torn from earlier Hindu temples; whereas, in Gaur itself, the use of brick predominates, and ancient carved stones are nowhere now to be seen. Even after the capital was removed back to Gaur, Panduah appears to have maintained its position as the occasional residence of royalty, and especially as the seat of ecclesiastical power. At the present day, the monuments of Mukdam and Kutab, two religious advisers of the early Afghán kings, enjoy large endowments, and are among the most popular places of Musalmán pilgrimage in Bengal. In succession to Gaur and Panduah, a third Muhammadan capital of Bengal, variously called TANDAN, Tondah, or Tángrá, lay somewhere on the western frontier of Maldah District. The very site is now unknown, having possibly been washed away by changes in the course of the Ganges. It seems to have been an important place for about one hundred years after the depopulation of Gaur; and in its neighbourhood was fought the decisive battle in which the rebel Shujá Sháh was defeated by the generals of Aurangzeb.

The connection of the East India Company with Maldah dates from a very early period. As far back as 1686 there was a silk factory here. In 1770, English Bázár was fixed upon for a commercial residency; the buildings of which, strongly fortified after the fashion of those days, exist to the present day, supplying both public offices and the private residence of the Collector. As an administrative unit, the District of Maldah only began to exist in 1813. In that year, in order to secure a closer magisterial supervision, various police circles were detached from the Districts of Rájsháhí, Dinájpur, and Purniah, and placed in charge of a Joint Magistrate and Deputy Collector, who was stationed at English Bázár. A separate treasury was first opened in 1832; and it was not till 1859 that a full Magistrate-Collector was appointed to the District. This gradual growth to independence has left traces in the confusion which recently existed in the boundaries of the fiscal, civil, and criminal jurisdictions. As these jurisdictions were acquired at different times, and under different circumstances, a perplexing absence of uniformity prevailed both in geographical area, and in the exercise of administrative functions. But changes that have taken place since 1870 have done much to simplify the boundaries, and unite all duties at a single centre.

Population.—No trustworthy information exists with regard to the

population of the District in early times. The Census of 1872 returned the total number at 676,426 persons, residing in 2100 *mauzás* or villages and in 129,579 houses. The area at that time was taken at 1813 square miles, which gives the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 373; villages per square mile, 1·16; houses per square mile, 71. The average number of persons per village is 322; of persons per house, 5·2. Classified according to sex, there are 331,087 males and 345,339 females; proportion of males, 48·9 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years—127,338 boys and 106,859 girls; total children, 234,197, or 34·6 per cent. of the population. The occupation returns are not trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that the total number of male adults connected with agriculture is given at 131,636, as against 72,113 male adult non-agriculturists. The ethnical division of the people shows—26 Europeans; 11 Eurasians; 11,717 aborigines; 135,562 semi-Hinduized aborigines; 211,552 Hindus subdivided according to caste; 6698 persons of Hindu origin not recognising caste; 310,890 Muhammadans. Maldah presents the ethnical characteristics of a border District, in which are met the semi-aborigines of the Bengal delta and the Behar valley, and the wild tribes from the foot of the Himálayas and the Chutiá Nágpur Hills. It was one of the surprises revealed by the Census that the Musalmáns form a minority of the inhabitants, even in the neighbourhood of their ancient capitals of Gaur and Panduah. Among the aborigines of the Census Report the most numerous tribes are the Kharwárs (6005) and the Dhángars (3165); the latter are immigrants from the farther bank of the Ganges, who have been attracted by the indigo industry. The semi-Hinduized aborigines are unusually well represented. The three cognate tribes of Koch, Palí, and Rájbansí number collectively 62,952 souls, or nearly one-half of the whole. This race, which has attained some degree of civilisation in its original home in Kuch Behar, is content in Maldah to lead a wild life amid the jungles which cover the eastern half of the District. The Chains, a Behar tribe, are 30,082 in number; the Binds, also a Behar tribe, 6002. Among the Hindus proper, the Bráhmans number 8287; the Rájputs, 3207; the Káyasths, 4601. The most numerous caste is the Kaibartta, with 24,902 members; next come the Nagar, with 19,228; the Telí, with 16,972; the Goálá, with 13,728; the Tior, with 13,717. Emigration from the District is unknown. Classified according to religion, the population is composed of—Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes), 356,298, or 52·7 per cent.; Muhammadans, 310,890, or 46 per cent.; 'others,' 9195, or 1·3 per cent. The remainder is made up of 43 Christians, including 6 native converts. The Bráhma Samáj has a small body of members at English Bázár, of whom none are natives of the District. The Vaishnavs are returned as numbering 5849; the Gosáins,

who are the religious teachers of the Vaishnavs, at 843 more. A large proportion of the Musalmáns are known to belong to the reformed Faráizí sect; and, in 1869, there were several State prosecutions in Maldah for Wahábí disaffection.

The population is almost entirely rural. Only two towns are returned in the Census Report of 1872 as each containing more than 5000 inhabitants—ENGLISH BAZAR OF ANGRAZABAD, population, 12,859; MALDAH or OLD MALDAH, population, 5262; showing a total urban population of 18,121 persons, or 2·68 per cent. The people show no tendency whatever to gather even into large villages. Out of a total of 2100 villages, no less than 1785 each contain less than 500 inhabitants. The most important centres of commerce are HAIATPUR on the Ganges, where there is a junction with the stream of the Kálindrí; and ROHANPUR on the Purnábhabá, just above the confluence of that river with the Mahánandá. The ruins of GAUR and PANDUAH are described under separate headings.

Agriculture.—Rice constitutes the staple crop throughout the District. Of the total food supply, it is estimated that the *áman* or winter crop, grown on low lands, forms about 29 per cent.; the *áus*, *bhadaí*, or autumn crop, grown on high lands, 16 per cent.; and the *boro* or spring crop, grown in marshes, 8 per cent. The remainder is made up by cold-weather food crops, 39 per cent.; and other food crops, 7 per cent. These cold-weather crops consist of pulses and oil-seeds of various sorts, wheat, maize, and inferior cereals. They are sown when the *áus* rice crop has been taken off the land. Among miscellaneous crops are—indigo, covering about 30,000 acres, chiefly on the sandy deposits near the Ganges; mulberry, grown in little raised plots along the banks of the Mahánandá; and the mango tree, which here yields the most valued fruit in all Bengal. Manure is only used on mulberry lands; and irrigation is not necessary, except for the *boro* rice crop, which can be easily watered from the neighbouring marsh or river. The principle of the rotation of crops is not known, but fields are occasionally allowed to lie fallow. Spare land is still to be found in most parts of the District; but the limit of cultivation is steadily advancing, especially over the ruins of Gaur. The average produce of an acre of good rice land, renting at 7s. 6d., is about 24 cwts. If a second crop could be raised from the same field, it would amount to an additional 13 cwts. The total value is returned by the Collector at more than £6, but his estimate appears to be too high. The lowest rate of rent is 9d. an acre, paid for *áman* rice lands; 7s. 6d. per acre is paid for land yielding three crops a year; while mulberry and mango gardens pay from 6s. to 18s. Altogether, the average rate of rent may be put at over 4s. an acre. It is stated that there has been no excessive enhancement in recent years. There is little that is peculiar in the land tenures of the District, except

the existence of several large *lákhiráj* estates, granted as endowments to Muhammadan *fakírs*. Among cultivating tenures, the *hál hásilá* deserves notice, according to which the annual rent varies according to the amount of land put under cultivation, and also according to the nature of the crop raised. This tenure is most common in the backward parts of the District, and one of its incidents is that it allows a certain proportion of the village lands always to lie fallow. The number of tenants who have established rights of occupancy is thought not to exceed 15 per cent.; the remainder are mere tenants-at-will.

Both the ordinary rate of wages and the price of food grains have approximately doubled within the past twenty years. A coolie now receives about 5d. a day; an agricultural labourer, 3d., with an additional payment in kind; a smith or carpenter, from 8d. to 1s. In 1873, the price of common rice was 4s. 9d. per cwt.; of barley, 3s. 1d.; of wheat, 6s. The highest price reached by rice in 1866, the year of the Orissa famine, was 11s. per cwt.

Maldah is liable, to some extent, to both the calamities of flood and drought. The Ganges occasionally overflows the eastern portion, especially in the neighbourhood of Háiatpur; and the other rivers annually come down swollen with the melted snows of the Himálayas. These inundations often cause considerable suffering, but they do not seriously injure the general harvest of the District. The drought of 1873, on the other hand, would have resulted in a wide-spread famine, had it not been for the prompt intervention of Government. Means of communication by the rivers are sufficiently ample to prevent scarcity from intensifying into acute distress.

Manufactures.—The two staple manufactures of the District are silk and indigo. The weaving of silk is said to date back to the Hindu kingdom of Gaur, and the peculiar cloth known as *maldahi* has been for generations a speciality of external commerce. The English had a factory at Maldah at least as early as 1686; and the production is locally reported to have been stimulated by French enterprise. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton, in the beginning of the present century, described with great detail the processes used in silk-weaving, and in the ancillary business of dyeing. Even at that time, however, the trade was languishing, and it has since continued to decline. The total export is now estimated at not more than £600 a year. Silk-winding, on the other hand, is in a flourishing condition. The total out-turn of raw silk from seven European concerns, and from a large number of native filatures, is estimated to amount to more than 15,000 cwts. The value of this, added to the value of exported cocoons, would reach about £180,000 a year; and a large proportion of this sum finds its way to the rearers of mulberry and silk-worms, who are described as being in most prosperous circumstances. The cultivation of indigo is not so flourishing as it was twenty years

ago. At the present time, there are upwards of 20 factories at work, belonging to 7 different concerns, with an average out-turn of about 2000 cwts., valued at £60,000. Brass-ware of an excellent quality is manufactured at Nawábganj, and paper in certain villages.

River traffic is brisk in all parts of the District. Háiatpur, on the Ganges, is a great trading centre in connection with the railway on the opposite bank of the river. At Rohanpur, on the Purnábhabá, is collected the surplus rice of Dinájpur; and all down the banks of the Mahánandá there are busy markets. The principal exports are rice (largely consigned towards the North-West), silk, indigo, brass-ware, and mango fruit. The imports comprise cotton cloth, salt, sugar, spices, betel-nuts, and cocoa-nuts. The registration returns for 1876-77 show a total export from the District valued at £321,619, against imports valued at £275,680. The chief exports are—rice, 500,500 *maunds*, and paddy, 96,900 *maunds*, valued together at £110,790; wheat, 108,800 *maunds*, valued at £21,760; gram and pulse, 155,200 *maunds*, valued at £27,160; jute, 74,049 *maunds*, valued at £22,214; gunny bags, 601,160 in number, valued at £13,225; indigo, 1051 *maunds*, valued at £21,020; raw silk, 364 *maunds*, valued at £18,200. The imports comprise European piece-goods, £9780 (this must be exclusive of the consignments from the railway at Rájmahál, at which station £184,580 was received from Calcutta during the year under notice); salt, 174,800 *maunds*, valued at £87,400; sugar, refined, 30,500 *maunds*, and unrefined, 171,200 *maunds*, valued together at £105,480. Among the local marts, Maldah town stands first with exports, valued at £97,331, and imports, valued at £199,629; Háiatpur exported £37,395, and imported £21,341; Rohanpur exported £39,685, and imported £7716. About three-fourths of the rice, and a large portion of the gunny bags, are consigned up the Ganges to the North-Western Provinces, in return for which the large imports of sugar are received from Gházípur. The wheat is sent to Calcutta, either direct by country boat, or by the railway through the Santál Parganás.

No line of railway crosses the boundary of the District; but both the East Indian loop-line at Rájmahál and Sáhibganj, and the new Northern Bengal State Railway in the neighbouring District of Rájsháhí, are near enough to exercise a direct influence upon the course of commerce. In 1870, the total length of roads in Maldah was returned at 177 miles, and the cost of maintenance at £368. But the real means of communication are the rivers, especially after the autumnal rains, when every little *nálá* becomes navigable.

Administration.—In 1870-71, the net revenue of Maldah District amounted to £59,493, towards which the land tax contributed £32,323 or 54 per cent.; the net expenditure was £15,291, or little more than one-fourth of the revenue. In the same year, there were

2 covenanted civil servants stationed in the District, and 5 magisterial, 2 civil, and 5 revenue courts were open. For police purposes, the District is divided into 9 police circles or *thánás*. In 1872, the regular police numbered 274 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £5411. In addition, there was a municipal police of 38 men, and a rural police or village watch of 1892 men. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 2204 officers and men, giving 1 man to every ·82 square mile of the area or to every 306 persons in the population. The estimated total cost was £10,979, averaging £6, 1s. 1d. per square mile and 3⅞d. per head of population. In that year, the total number of persons convicted of any offence, great or small, amounted to 897, or 1 in every 754 of the population. By far the greater number of the convictions were for petty offences. The District contains one jail at English Bázár. In 1872, the average daily number of prisoners was 82, of whom 6 were females; the labouring convicts averaged 46. These figures show 1 person in jail to every 8258 of the population. The total cost amounted to £619, or £7, 10s. 7d. per prisoner; the jail manufactures yielded a money loss of £56. The death-rate among the prisoners was 59·3 per thousand.

Education has widely spread of recent years, owing to the changes by which the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules has been extended, first to the vernacular middle class schools, and ultimately to the village schools or *páthsálás*. In 1856, there were only 2 schools in the District, attended by 117 pupils. By 1870, these numbers had risen to 18 schools and 986 pupils; and in 1872, when Sir G. Campbell's reforms were in full operation, the schools had increased to 179, and the pupils to 4207, showing 1 school to every 10 square miles, and 7 pupils to every 1000 of the population. In the last-mentioned year, the total expenditure on education was £1518, towards which Government contributed £537. The English higher-class school at English Bázár was attended by 111 pupils.

The subdivisional system of administration has not yet been extended to Maldah. The District contains 9 police circles, and 49 *parganás* or fiscal divisions, with an aggregate of 560 revenue-paying estates. In 1876, there was 1 civil judge and 4 stipendiary magistrates; the maximum distance of any village from the nearest court was 40 miles, the average distance 20 miles. According to the Census Report of 1872, there are 2 municipalities in the District,—English Bázár and Maldah town,—with a total population of 18,121 souls; the gross municipal income is returned at £575, the average rate of taxation being 7⅝d. per head.

Medical Aspect.—The climate of Maldah is considered somewhat less unhealthy than that of the neighbouring Districts. The rainy season

lasts from the middle of June to the middle of October. The average rainfall is returned at 55·26 inches; the mean annual temperature at 56·66°. The chief epidemic diseases are malarious fever, cholera, and small-pox. Outbreaks of fever annually coincide with the cessation of the rains. Cholera is always heard of first in the outlying parts of the District; and it has been repeatedly observed to spread from religious fairs in all directions. Small-pox is propagated by the popular practice of inoculation. The vital statistics for selected areas show a death-rate during 1875 of 24·68 per thousand in the rural area, 32·73 in the urban area of English Bázár, and 60·62 in Maldah town. This last was the most unfavourable throughout all Bengal. There was, in 1872, only one charitable dispensary in the District, at English Bázár, at which 77 in-door and 3760 out-door patients were treated during the year; the total income was £165, towards which Government contributed £70.

Maldah or **Old Maldah.**—Town in Maldah District, Bengal; situated at the confluence of the Kálindrí with the Mahánandá, in lat. 25° 2′ 30″ N., and long. 88° 10′ 51″ E. Pop. (1872), 5262. Municipal revenue (1876-77), £248; rate of taxation, 10⅝d. per head of population. This town is admirably situated for river traffic, and probably rose to prosperity as the port of the Muhammadan Panduah. During the last century, it was the seat of thriving cotton and silk manufactures, and both the French and Dutch had factories here. But in 1810, Maldah, according to Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton's statement, was already beginning to lose its prosperity; and it now shows signs of poverty and decay. Trade is still carried on in food-stuffs.

Maldive Islands.—A number of islands grouped together in clusters called Atolls, lying between 42′ S. to 7° 6′ N. lat., and between 72° 33′ and 73° 44′ E. long. The larger islands are generally inhabited; but many of the smaller are mere sandbanks or barren rocks. There are 19 Atolls in all, with several detached islands or rocks in the channels that separate them. Mali, or King's Island, the capital of the Maldive group, situated in lat. 40° 10′ N., and long. 73° 34′ E., is about 1 mile in length, and ¾ mile in breadth. It contains a population of upwards of 1500 persons, and is the residence of the Sultán and the seat of Government. The political connection of the Maldives is with Ceylon, and not with British India. The Sultán sends an annual embassy to the Governor of Ceylon, claiming the protection and favour of the British Government, and presenting a tribute of cowries, fish, and cakes. The Governor in return stipulates for succour to Europeans shipwrecked on the islands.

Our early knowledge of the Maldives is mainly derived from the *Travels* of Ibn Batuta, who visited the group *cir.* 1340 A.D., and married a daughter of one of the Wazírs; and from the *Adventures* of Pyrard, a Frenchman, who suffered shipwreck on the Malosmadu Atoll in

1602, and was detained as a captive for five years. In recent times, Lieutenant Christopher, R.N., when officially engaged on the Indian Survey, remained on the islands from June 1834 to September 1835. The results of his observations, as published in the *Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society*, vol. vi., O.S., form the basis of all subsequent accounts. An interesting comparison of his vocabulary with that given by Pyrard will be found in the *Journal* R.A.S., vol. x., N.S., part ii.

The native name is Mahaldíb, from *mali*, the chief Atoll, and *dwípa*, the Sanskrit for island. The number of Atolls or groups is, for political purposes, reckoned at 13. The total of separate islands is popularly reported to be 12,000, a vague figure, which in Maldive arithmetic corresponds to the 10,000 (*lákh*) of Hindus. The Sultán's title is *Dolos Assa Ral Tera Atholon*, or 'King of 13 Provinces and 12,000 Islands.' The following is the list of the 13 Atolls, in order from the north, with the number of inhabited islands in each group, as derived from the Admiralty charts (1868):—(1) Tilladumati, with 17 inhabited islands; (2) Milladumadu, 32; (3) Paddipholo, 2; (4) Malosmadu, 30; (5) Ari, 13; (6) Mali or Malé, 8; (7) Phalidu, 5; (8) Moluk, 8; (9) Nillandu, 13; (10) Collomandu, 11; (11) Adumati, 12; (12) Suadiva, 17; (13) Addu, 7; total of inhabited islands, 175. The total number of inhabitants is entirely unknown; estimates vary between 20,000 and 200,000. The latter is probably nearest the actual truth. From time immemorial, the Maldives have been in some sense dependent upon Ceylon. The early Greek, Chinese, and Arabian travellers agree in describing Ceylon as ruling over an indefinite number of adjacent islands. The language of the inhabitants at the present day, and still more in the time of Pyrard, has many points of resemblance to the modern Singhalese; and a few traces have been preserved of a common Buddhism. An inscription seen by Ibn Batuta would place the conversion to Muhammadanism in about the year 1200. The Portuguese discovered the Maldives in 1506, and acquired the same sort of vague supremacy that is now exercised by the British.

The following paragraphs are condensed from Captain Horsburgh and Commander Dundas Taylor's *Sailing Directions*:—

People.—The whole Maldive group is inhabited by a civilised race of people, who carry on a considerable trade with the British possessions in India, more particularly with Bengal, Chittagong, Ceylon, and the Malabar coast. They are expert navigators and sailors; schools for teaching navigation are found on some of the islands. The people are inoffensive and timid, and there appears to be far less crime among them than with more polished nations. Murder has been seldom known; and theft and drunkenness are very uncommon. The men in appearance are of a dark copper colour, rather short, and in person not unlike the natives of Ceylon and the Malabar coast; but at Mali, many

exhibit in their physical conformation an admixture of African blood, doubtless derived from the Zanzibar slaves occasionally brought by Maskat vessels. The women are not pretty, and are extremely alarmed at the sight of strangers. These islanders have several times been more than kind in their hospitality to shipwrecked mariners. In religion, they profess Muhammadanism, which is said to have been introduced by a man from Persia about 400 years ago, whose tomb at Mali is held in great veneration.

Productions.—The cocoa-nut palm is most extensively planted; rows of them line the roads. The tree grows to a height of 70 to 90 feet, and the nut is esteemed superior to the produce of India. Many kinds of fruit-yielding trees are found. Millet and cotton are grown to a small extent. Cowry shells (the small money of the islands) are found in myriads. Game birds are plentiful; wild ducks, which come over in great numbers during November, are caught in nets, and considered excellent food. The bonito fishery is the chief employment of the islanders, that fish being the principal article of food as well as of commerce; sometimes 1000 are caught by one boat in a day, but 600 or 700 is the ordinary take.

Trade.—The whole of the export and import trade of this group of islands, carried on by foreigners, is conducted at Mali, whither the produce of all the Atolls is brought, the dealers from each carrying back the produce of other parts to supply the wants of their islands. The external trade of Mali consists of two branches, one carried on by traders from Chittagong, Point-de-Galle, the Malabar coast, and occasionally from Maskat; the other by the islanders themselves in their own vessels. The foreign traders call regularly once a year, arriving about March and leaving about July. They barter principally for bonito fish, of which two or three millions are shipped off every season. Tortoise-shell, cocoa-nuts, coir-yarn, cowries, and a kind of sweetmeat form the other articles of export. That part of the external trade which is conducted by the natives themselves, is carried on chiefly with Calcutta, in boats of from 100 to 200 tons burden. They leave the islands in August or September annually, and return in December. The imports are rice, dates, salt, leaf-tobacco, betel-nuts, coarse white cloth, cotton, red and white check cotton handkerchiefs, curry stuff, *ghí*, china-ware, Indian pottery, and coarse brown sugar; and, in small quantities, steel, brass wire, thread, and waist-cloths of various colours.

Government.—The Maldive islands are governed by a Sultán, whose title and rank are hereditary. Under him are 6 Wazírs or ministers of State, of whom the first in rank is styled Durimind, the chief or general of the army; but above these, and second only to the Sultán, is the Fandiári, the head priest and judge. The Hindigeri or custom-master and public treasurer, and the Amír-el-bahr or harbourmaster, are also

great men. All these functionaries reside at Mali or King's Island. Every Atoll pays a certain fixed revenue—a portion of their produce—to the Government at Mali, and nobody is allowed to trade with foreigners except at the capital, where the dues are exacted. The Indian rupee is the current coin of the islands, and is used in all money transactions. Of cowries, 12,000, constituting one *kota* or *gúlah*, can be purchased at the *bázár* of Mali for 1 rupee.

Language.—Three different kinds of written characters are found on Maldive tombstones. The most ancient are called Dewehi Hakura, which were probably used by the first inhabitants, and are still retained in the South Atolls. The next is the Arabic character, written from right to left. The third, also written from right to left, and called Gabali-Tana, is the common dialect throughout all the Atolls. In consequence of intercourse with traders from Bengal and other parts, the language is intermixed with many foreign words. Letters of the alphabet are used as numerals, reckoning by twelves instead of by tens.

Climate.—The climate of the Maldives, which is very unhealthy, forms the great obstacle to foreign intercourse and internal improvement. The cause of strangers losing their health is partly the lagoons and marshes throughout the islands, and partly the unvarying temperature of the atmosphere. The principal diseases are a species of bowel complaint and *beri-beri.* Ague and intermittent fever also prevail, and are difficult to be got rid of. The thermometer ranges from 75° to 85° F. in the shade.

Channels.—Amongst the different Atolls, there are good channels for ships, some of which are intricate, and only fit for steamers, as the currents run strong through them to east or west, according to the season. There are also numerous openings and gateways, which are very deep, and used by the Maldive boats in passing from one Atoll to another. Some of these will admit the very largest ships.

Málegáon.—Chief town of the Subdivision of the same name in Nasik District, Bombay; situated in lat. 20° 32′ 18″ N., and long. 74° 36′ 51″ E., on the trunk road from Bombay to Agra; distant 154 miles north-east of Bombay, and 24 miles north-east of the Manwár station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Pop. (1872), 9701. Málegáon is a cantonment and a municipality, and the headquarters station of the chief revenue and police officers of the Subdivision. Average municipal revenue, £860. Government telegraph office, post office, and dispensary. Málegáon was occupied by a force of Arab partisan troops during the Pindári war, and its siege and capture by Colonel M'Dowall in May 1818, was attended by a loss of life of upwards of 200 to the British force.

Máler Kotla.—Native State, under the political superintendence of the Government of the Punjab; situated between 30° 24′ and

30° 41′ N. lat., and between 75° 42′ and 75° 59′ 15″ E. long.; estimated area (1875), 165 square miles; estimated population (1876), 91,560.

History.—The Nawáb is of Afghán descent; his family originally came from Kábul, and occupied positions of trust in the Sirhind Province under the Mughal Emperors. They gradually became independent, as the Mughal Empire sank into decay in the course of the 18th century. In 1732, the then Chief of Máler Kotla, named Jamál Khán, joined the commander of the imperial troops stationed in the Jálandhar *doáb* in an unsuccessful attack on Rájá Alá Sinh, the Síkh Chief of Patiála; and again in 1761, Jamál Khán afforded valuable aid against his Síkh neighbours to the lieutenant whom Ahmad Sháh, the Duráni conqueror, had left in charge of Sirhind. The consequence of this was a long-continued feud with adjacent Síkh States, especially with that of Patiála. After the death of Jamál Khán, who was killed in battle, dissensions ensued among his sons, Atá-ullá Khán ultimately becoming Nawáb. Soon after Ahmad Sháh had left India for the last time, Rájá Amar Sinh of Patiála determined to take revenge on Atá-ullá Khán. He attacked him, and seized some of his villages, when at last the Máler Kotla Chief found that he was unable to resist so powerful an enemy, and a treaty was negotiated which secured peace for many years between these neighbouring States. During this peace the forces of Máler Kotla on several occasions assisted the Patiála Rájás when in difficulties; and in 1787, Rájá Sáhib Sinh of Patiála returned these kindnesses by aiding Máler Kotla against the powerful Chief of Bhadaur, who had seized some of the Nawáb's villages. In 1794, a religious war was proclaimed against the Muhammadans of Máler Kotla by the Bedi Sáhib Sinh, the lineal descendant of Bábá Nának, the first and most revered of the Síkh Gurus. This man, who was half-fanatic and half-impostor, inflamed the Síkhs against the cow-killers of Máler Kotla, and a great many Síkh Sirdárs joined him. The Nawáb and his troops were defeated in a pitched battle, and compelled to flee to the capital, where they were closely besieged by the fanatical Bedi. Fortunately for the Nawáb, his ally of Patiála again sent troops to help him; and ultimately the Bedi was induced to withdraw across the Sutlej, by the offer of a sum of money by the Patiála Rájá.

From the year 1788, the Marhattás became predominant in this part of India; in the campaign of General Lake against Holkar in 1805, the Nawáb of Máler Kotla joined the British army with all his followers. After the victory of Laswári, gained by the British over Sindhia in 1803, and the subjugation and flight of Holkar in 1805, the English Government succeeded to the power of the Marhattás in the Districts between the Sutlej and the Jumna; and in 1809 its protection was formally extended to Máler Kotla, as to the other cis-Sutlej States, against the formidable encroachments of Ranjít Sinh, the Lion of

Lahore. In the campaigns of 1806, 1807, and 1808, Ranjít Sinh had made considerable conquests across the Sutlej; and in 1808 he occupied Farídkot, marched on Máler Kotla, and demanded a ransom of £10,000 from the unfortunate Nawáb, in spite of the protests of Mr. (afterwards Lord) Metcalfe, who was then an envoy in Ranjít's camp. This led to the resolute interference of the British, who advanced troops under Colonel Ochterlony, and at the same time (December 1808) addressed an *ultimatum* to Ranjít Sinh, declaring the cis-Sutlej States to be under British protection. Finally the Rájá of Lahore submitted; Colonel Ochterlony formally reinstated the Nawáb of Máler Kotla in February 1809; and in April of that year the final treaty between the British Government and Lahore, which affirmed the dependence of the cis-Sutlej States on the former, was signed by Mr. Metcalfe and Ranjít Sinh.

Products, Administration, etc.—The chief products of the State are cotton, sugar, opium, aniseed, tobacco, garlic, and grain; the gross revenue is £25,893. The present Nawáb, Muhammad Ibráhim Alí Khán, was born in 1857; he has exercised complete jurisdiction in his State since the death of his relative, Ghulám Muhammad Khán, in May 1877. The Nawáb receives compensation from the Government of £250 per annum in perpetuity, on account of loss of revenue caused by the abolition of customs duties. The military force of the State is 120 cavalry and 350 infantry, 5 field-guns, and 11 artillerymen. The chief receives a salute of 9 guns.

Máler Kotla.—Chief town of Máler Kotla State, Punjab; situated 30 miles south of Ludhiána, in lat. 30° 31′ N., and long. 75° 59′ E.

Malgin.—Salt mine in Kohát District, Punjab; one of the series occurring in the hills which bound the valley of the Teri Toi. Lat. 33° 19′ 30″ N., long. 71° 34′ E. Derives its name from the Pushtu word *málga* (salt). Its quarries—in which, as at the other neighbouring mines, the mineral crops out in masses, and is simply excavated from surface workings, without shafts—have been visited from time immemorial; but Sháhbaz Khán of Teri (1780 A.D.) first made them a source of income. His representatives, the Kháns of Teri, and the neighbouring villagers, have ancient proprietory rights in the mines. The workings extend over a space of 1 mile, and the salt is excavated by blasting. Khattaks, Afrídís, and Bangashes chiefly resort to this mine, and convey the salt on bullocks and donkeys to Pesháwar, Swát, Bonair, and Pakhli. The salt depôt stands 4 miles from the quarries; its officials include a *daroga*, a *moharrir*, a *jamádár*, 20 Sepoys, and a weighman. Average annual gross income, £2736.

Mália.—Native State within the British Political Agency of Káthiáwár, Bombay. Pop. (1872), 10,519; number of villages, 10. The country is flat, and the climate hot and dry; water is obtained from wells, ponds,

and rivers. The usual grains, sugar-cane, and cotton are grown. Mália ranks as one of the 'fourth-class' Káthiáwár States; the Thákur, or chief, having lately been raised from the fifth to the fourth class, to give him greater hold over the Miyánas, a predatory tribe which infests this part of the country. He is a representative of the elder branch of the Cutch family, and executed the usual engagements in 1807. The present (1876-77) ruler is Thákur Modjí, a Hindu of the Játeja Rájput caste. He is twenty-nine years of age, and administers the affairs of his State in person. He enjoys an estimated gross yearly income of £6098; pays tribute of £136 jointly to the Gáekwár of Baroda and the Nawáb of Junágarh, and maintains a military force of 50 men. The succession to the Chiefship follows the rule of primogeniture. There are 2 schools, with 105 pupils.

Mália.—Capital of Mália State, Káthiáwár, Bombay. Lat. 23° 4' N., long. 70° 46' E.

Malihábád.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Lucknow District, Oudh; situated between 26° 52' and 27° 9' 30" N. lat., and between 80° 36' and 81° 7' E. long. Bounded on the north by Sandíla and Mahmúdábád, on the east by Rámnagar and Bára Bánkí, on the south by Lucknow, and on the west by Mohán *tahsíls*. Area, 334 square miles, of which 193 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 158,834, viz. 137,345 Hindus and 21,489 Musalmáns; average density of population, 475 per square mile; number of villages or townships (*mauzás*), 382. This *tahsíl* comprises the 2 *parganás* of Malihábád and Mahona.

Malihábád.—*Parganá* in Lucknow District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Hardoi District, on the east by Mahona, on the south by Kákori, and on the west by Mohán Aurás in Unao. In general fertility, this is stated to be one of the best *parganás* in the District; and while the percentage of cultivated area is higher than that of any other, the density of population is the lowest. The uncultivated land only amounts to 13·92 per cent. of the total area, and of this one-half is taken up by homesteads, roads, and tanks, the remainder chiefly consisting of barren tracts along the course of the small streams, Barti, Jhandi, and Akrahdi, tributaries of the Gumti, which flows through the *parganá* in a south-easterly direction. Area, 187 square miles, of which 111 are cultivated. Government land revenue, £15,259; being at an average rate of 4s. 3d. per acre on the cultivated area, 3s. per acre on the assessed area, and 2s. 6d. per acre on the total area. Pop. (1869), 87,316, viz. 72,739 Hindus and 14,577 Muhammadans. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway intersects the *parganá*, and there are also several fairly good lines of road.

Malihábád.—Town in Lucknow District, Oudh; situated on the Lucknow and Sandíla road, in lat. 26° 54' 50" N., and long. 80° 45' E. An important town, and station of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway.

Pop. (1869), 8026. The principal residents are Musalmáns, the two *tálukdárs* being Afrídi Patháns. Under native rule, the armed retainers, maintained by every landholder throughout Oudh, were commonly recruited from the Pathán families of Malihábád. Police station, *tahsíl*, post office, registration office, 2 boys' and 2 girls' schools.

Malimbi.—Mountain in the Yelusávira range of hills, Coorg; 4488 feet above the sea. The summit has a graceful conical shape, conspicuous from every part of Coorg.

Málínagar.—Town in Darbhangah District, Bengal; situated in lat. 25° 59′ 30″ N., and long. 85° 42′ 30″ E., on the north bank of the Little Gandak, on the main road from Púsa to Darbhangah. Contains a temple to Mahádeo, completed in 1844; a *melá* or fair, called *Rámnámí*, held annually from 1st to 5th of April in honour of Ráma, and attended by from 2000 to 4000 persons. This fair is, as usual, partly of a religious and partly of a commercial character.

Malipur (*Maliyapuram*).—Town (more correctly a group of hamlets) in Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 11° 3′ 2″ N., long. 75° 51′ 21″ E.; pop. (1871), 6012; number of houses, 1309. Notable as the centre, for many years, of the Moplá fanatical outbreaks (*see* MALABAR DISTRICT). In consequence of two such risings in 1841 and 1843, native troops were sent here; but as they proved useless during the outbreaks of 1849 and 1851, a special Assistant Collector and a detachment of European troops have since been stationed in the place. In 1873, they were employed against a gang of religious fanatics and murderers. On more than one occasion special corps have been raised in Malipur to deal with local outrages, but this work is now done by the regular constabulary. Malipur is 30 miles south-east of Calicut, with which place it is connected by a good road. It is fairly healthy. The chief buildings are the Assistant Collector's Court, and the barracks.

Ma-lí-won.—Subdivision of Mergui District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated in the extreme south of the Province. It includes many of the islands in Mergui Archipelago, and also Victoria Island off the mouth of the Pak-chan river. The western boundary of Ma-lí-won is the Bay of Bengal; the coast-line is for the most part fringed with mangrove swamps. The country consists chiefly of undulating grassy plains, and of stretches of dense evergreen virgin forest; towards the north and south-east rise ranges of low tree-clad hills, spurs of the main dividing chain. The area brought under cultivation is very small; the chief product of the Subdivision is tin, obtained by washing the gravel lying immediately below the alluvial deposits in the valley. Pop. (1877), 5561—Siamese, Chinese, Malays, and Burmese. The Siamese confine themselves to cultivation, and the Chinese to mining. The gross revenue in 1877 was £653.

Máliyás.—Hill Tracts in GANJAM and VIZAGAPATAM Districts,

Madras, for particulars of which see the articles on those Districts.

Malkágiri (or *Malkaugiri*).—*Táluk* in the Jáipur *zamíndári*, Vizagapatam District, Madras. A wild forest-clad tract, watered by the Táveri and Sitern, and sloping from the Tulási Dangiri Hills, which separate it on the north from the Rámgiri *táluk*, to the Godávari. This *táluk* contains 220 villages, with 2500 houses, and about 13,000 inhabitants (1871), chiefly Kandhs and Kois. Area, about 4000 square miles; average elevation above the sea, about 1200 feet. There are some splendid *sál* and teak forests, and the whole tract is full of large game. The town of Malkágiri, with a mud fort, is situated in lat. 18° 19′ N., and long. 81° 53′ E.

Malkápur.—Town in Buldána District, on the western frontier of Berar; situated in lat. 20° 5′ N., and long. 76° 23′ 20″ E., on the Nálganga river; elevation above the sea, 900 feet. Pop. (1867), 7988. Two *bandhs* or dams cross the Nálganga, the smaller of which is said to have been constructed about 200 years ago, as a means of communication between the *pet* or suburb, on the other side, and the town. During the rainy season, the river surrounds the town on three sides, and the larger dam was intended to render the fourth side unapproachable except by water, and thus secure it against the Pindárís. A now dilapidated rampart of dressed stone—2350 yards in circumference, with 5 gates and 28 bastions—surrounds the town, and in the west quarter there is a fort of earthwork. The Great Indian Peninsula Railway runs about 300 yards north of the town, and about the same distance to the east and north-east lie the several Government and railway buildings. The town is divided into 4 principal *púras* or quarters. It is said to have been founded 400 years ago by a Muhammadan prince of the Farrukhi house, who was led by a miracle to select the present site, to which he transferred the people of Patúr, which stood to the north-west, beyond the river, where the foundations can yet be traced. The new town was called Malkápur, after the prince's daughter. Malkápur is mentioned in the *Aín-i-Akbari*, and was long the headquarters of a *tálukdár*. In 1761 A.D., it was rich enough to pay Rs. 60,000 (say £6000), for exemption from plunder, to the army of Peshwá Raghunáth Ráo. The *táluk* of Malkápur being on the Nizám's frontier, and near the Sátpura Hills, a large force (stated at 20,000 men) was generally quartered there. Daulat Ráo Sindhia and the Bhonslá were encamped near Malkápur when the British envoy, Colonel Collins, after presenting General Wellesley's enforced acceptance of war, quitted Sindhia's camp on the 3d August 1803. There were once large gardens here, the trees and ruined wells of which still remain. An Assistant Commissioner holds his court at Malkápur, and there is a *tahsíli*. Excellent school, police station, and post office. The

imperial customs line cuts the railway at Malkápur. A mosque near the Kází's house is said to be older than the town.

Málkárgarh.—Town in Indore State, Central India; situated in lat. 24° 19′ N., and long. 74° 58′ E. (Thornton), on the route from Nímach (Neemuch) to Mhow (Mhau), 10 miles south of the former and 141 miles north-west of the latter. *Bázár*, and plentiful water supply.

Mallái (also known as *Majorganj* and *Halakhaura*).—Market town in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; situated in lat. 26° 45′ N., and long. 85° 28′ 30″ E., on the main road from Maniári *ghát* to Sonbarsa. Site of a British cantonment during the Nepálese war in 1814. Pop. (1872), 1525.

Mallánpur.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh; situated 41 miles north-east of Sítápur town, with which it is connected by a good road. Founded about 400 years ago by a Kurmí named Mallán, but subsequently taken possession of by Raikwárs, who still hold it. Pop. (1869), 4045, residing in mud houses, the only masonry building being the residence of the *tálukdár*. Good bi-weekly market; boys' school.

Mallánwán.—*Parganá* in Hardoi District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by *parganá* Bangar; on the east by Sandíla and Bálamau, the Sái river forming the boundary line; on the south and south-west by Bangarmau and Kachhandán; and on the north-west by Bílgrám. Area, 136 square miles; pop. (1869), 77,681, consisting of 71,408 Hindus and 6273 Muhammadans. The most numerous caste are Kurmís, of whom there are 14,566. The castes next in number are Bráhmans, Chamárs, Ahírs, and Kshattriyas. Of the 123 villages comprising the *parganá*, 29 are held by Muhammadans, 48 by Kshattriyas, and 21 by Bráhmans. The tenure is mainly *zamíndárí*. The Government land revenue demand, excluding cesses, is £10,229, equal to a rate of 3s. 11¼d. per cultivated acre, or 2s. 4⅛d. per acre of total area. The area under cultivation is returned at 60·79 per cent. of the whole, besides 4·89 per cent. under groves; 16·21 per cent. is cultivable waste, and 18·11 per cent. barren. The principal crops are barley and *bájra*, covering about half the cultivated area; wheat occupies about one-sixth; *joár* and gram another sixth; while the remainder is mainly occupied with rice, *arhar*, sugar-cane, cotton, indigo, tobacco, and poppy. The *parganá* is well provided with road communication; and several villages contain aided and primary schools. It seems to have been originally in the hands of the Thatheras, who were expelled by Kshattriya immigrants at some unknown period before the Muhammadan conquest of Kanauj. Later on, it fell within the track of the invasion of Sayyid Sálár Masáúd (1033 A.D.). The tomb of one of his companions is pointed out in the town of Mallánwán; and the Shaikhs claim to have sprung from an early Muhammadan settlement made at the time of this inroad. Tradition also connects Mallánwán with Jái

Chánd, the Rájput king of Kanauj, who is said to have quartered his wrestlers (*mál*) here. Many persons derive the name Mallánwán from this fact. A more popular account, however, is that when the Ghori invader marched through on his triumphant return from Kanauj, certain Ahírs conciliated him with an offering of cream (*malái*), which pleased him so much that he forthwith ordered a colony to be settled here, which he called Mallánwán in memory of the event.

Mallánwán.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh, and headquarters of the *parganá* of the same name; situated 21 miles south of Hardoi town, on the road from Hardoi to Unao. Lat. 27° 2′ 10″ N., long. 80° 11′ 30″ E.; pop. (1869), 11,670, dwelling in 180 brick and 1538 mud houses. The town is divided into 6 wards or *mahallas*. Under native rule, it possessed considerable political importance; and at the time of the British annexation of Oudh, it was selected as the civil headquarters of what now forms Hardoi District, the site being removed from Mallánwán to Hardoi upon the re-occupation of the Province after the Mutiny. The town has but little commerce, the grain trade of the neighbourhood being carried on at Madhuganj, 5 miles distant. A deserted indigo factory occupies the site of the old fort. The manufacture of saltpetre has been recently introduced. Bi-weekly market, and manufacture of brass utensils. The principal buildings are—4 mosques; the *dargah* or tomb of a famous Muhammadan saint, Makhdum Sháh; 2 *imámbáras*; 14 Hindu temples; and a mud *sarái* or travellers' rest-house.

Mallia.—One of the petty States in Mahi Kánta, Káthiáwár, Bombay.—*See* MALIA.

Málnipahár.—Hot spring in Monghyr District, Bengal, forming the source of the Anjáná river. It is situated about 7 miles east and north from Bhímbándh, and issues from the bottom of Málnipahár, a part of the central cluster of the Monghyr Hills. A space of about 20 yards in length and 20 feet in width is covered with fragments of rock, under which the water may be heard running, and in some places seen through the crevices, until it comes to the lower side and forms into little streams that soon unite. The stones from among which the water issues are a kind of jasper, stained with red. The temperature of the water varies from about 145° to 150° F.

Malondi.—Town in the Bassein Subdivision of Tanna District, Bombay. Pop. (1872), 5293. Together with Bassein, Malondi forms a municipality with an annual income of £567.

Malot.—Ancient ruins in Jhelum (Jhílam) District, Punjab; standing in lat. 32° 56′ 45″ N., and long. 73° 39′ 15″ E., about 12 miles south-east of the similar remains at KATAS, and attributed like them to the earliest heroic period of Hindu history. The place formed, according to tradition, the capital of Rájá Mall, mythical ancestor of the Janjuah tribe, and a contemporary or descendant of the *Mahábhárata*

heroes. The village contains a temple, finer and probably older than that of Katás, with remarkable Ionic or Bactrian columns. Crowns the edge of one of the highest precipices in the Salt Range, and commands an extensive view over the valleys of the Jhelum and the Chenáb. A fort built by Ranjít Sinh's father occupies the crest of the hill.

Málpur.—Native State within the British Political Superintendency of Pálanpur, Guzerat, Bombay; situated in the south-eastern portion of Mahi Kánta. Pop. (1872), 10,303. The boundary marches with the State of Lunáwára and Ahmedábád District. The country is hilly and wild, and its exact area has not been ascertained. The principal agricultural products are *bájra* (millet), wheat, and other grains. The Málpur family is an offshoot of that of the Ráo of Edar. Virájmal, younger son of Kirat Sinhjí, 7th Ráo of Edar, was provided for by a grant of lands, and in 1344 his grandson, Khánají, established himself at Mhow (Mhau). Khánají's grandson, Randhír Sinhjí, moved from Mhow to Morása; and it was not till 1466 that Ráwal Wágh Sinhjí, great-grandson of Randhír Sinhjí of Morása, and eighth in descent from Virájmal, finally settled at Málpur. At that time, Málpur was ruled by a Bhíl chief named Málo Kánt. A certain Bráhman of Málpur had a beautiful daughter with whom Málo Kánt had fallen in love. The Bráhman fled to Morása, and begged the assistance of the ruling chief, Wágh Sinhjí, who shortly afterwards attacked and conquered Málpur, where his descendants have ruled as Ráwals ever since. In 1780, during the reign of Indar Sinhjí, Fateh Sinh, then Gáekwár of Baroda, attacked and captured Málpur and took away its gates; and since then the Ráwals of Málpur have paid an annual tribute to the Gáekwár. It was during the rule of Ráwal Takht Sinh, in 1816, that the chief of Edar stayed at Málpur; and since then the Ráwals have paid tribute to Edar. The present (1876-77) chief is Ráwal Seo Sinhjí, a Hindu of the Ráhtor Rájput caste, who reckons twenty-two generations from Kirat Sinhjí. He is thirty-six years of age, and manages his estate in person. He enjoys an estimated gross annual revenue of £1200, and pays an annual tribute of £43 to the British Government, £50 to the Ráo of Edar, and £30 to the Gáekwár of Baroda. There are 3 schools, with a total of 75 pupils.

Málpur.—Chief town of Málpur State, Pálanpur, Bombay. Lat. 23° 21′ 20″ N., long. 73° 28′ 30″ E.

Malsián.—Town in Jalandhar (Jullundur) District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 8′ N., long. 75° 23′ 15″ E.; pop. (1868), 6286, consisting of 1665 Hindus, 4399 Muhammadans, and 222 Síkhs.

Málthon.—Chief town of a tract of the same name in Ságar (Saugor) District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 24° 19′ N., and long. 78° 34′ E., about 40 miles north of Ságar, on the southern slope of the Narat *ghát* or pass. The ascent is gentle, and is commanded by the fort. About 1748, Prithwí Sinh of GARHAKOTA took possession of the

village in the name of the Peshwá, and altered its site to where it now stands; he also built the fort. In 1811, his descendant Rájá Arjun Sinh made over Málthon and Garhákotá to Sindhia, in return for his assistance in expelling the army of the Rájá of Nágpur from Garhákotá. In 1820, shortly after the cession of Ságar District by the Peshwá, Málthon was assigned by Sindhia to the British in exchange for other territory. During the disturbances of 1857, two companies of the 31st Native Infantry were despatched to Málthon; but finding the Rájás of Sháhgarh and Bánpur were approaching with a large force, they returned to Ságar. The town and fort were then occupied by the Rájá of Sháhgarh, who traced his descent from Prithwí Sinh; but in January 1858, he decamped on learning the defeat of the Rájá of Bánpur at Barodiá Naunagar. A weekly market is held at Málthon. The road from Ságar to Lalitpur and Jhánsi runs through the town, and there is a travellers' bungalow near the fort. A boys' school and one for girls have been established; and a dispensary, with accommodation for in-patients, was founded in 1863.

Malur.—*Táluk* in Kolár District, Mysore. Area, 154 square miles, of which 111 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 56,581, of whom 53,969 are Hindus, 2587 Muhammadans, 4 Jains, and 21 Christians; land revenue (1874-75), £8369, or 2s. 5d. per cultivated acre.

Málur.—Municipal village in Kolár District, Mysore; 18 miles south-west of Kolár, and a station on the Bangalore branch railway; headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name. Lat. 13° 43′ 20″ N., long. 75° 22′ 35″ E.; pop. (1871), 2981; municipal revenue (1874-75), £93; rate of taxation, 7½d. per head. Originally called Mallikapura or Jasmine town. Successively passed under the power of the Muhammadans of Bijápur and the Marhattás, until annexed to Mysore by Haidar Alí. Weekly fair on Thursdays.

Málur (or *Molúr*).—Village in Bangalore District, Mysore State. Lat. 13° 5′ N., long. 77° 58′ 20″ E.; pop. (1871), 1794, of whom the majority are Srí-Vaishnava Bráhmans. Known as Mukunda-nagar or Mankundapatna in the 7th century, and the residence of two of the Kongu kings, whose capital was at TALKAD. The sage, Vijnáneswara Yogi, here composed his celebrated *bháshya* or commentary on the code called *Yajnavalkhya Smriti*. There are several ruined temples, but the large temple of Aprameya-swámi is still maintained in good order.

Malvalli.—*Táluk* in Mysore District, Mysore. Area, 350 square miles, of which 118 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 74,985, of whom 72,545 are Hindus, 2430 Muhammadans, 4 Jains, and 6 Christians; land revenue (1874-75), excluding water rates, £5740, or 1s. 7d. per cultivated acre. Sheep-breeding is extensively carried on by the Kuruba and Goálá castes.

Malvalli.—Municipal town in Mysore District, Mysore; situated in lat. 12° 23′ 10″ N., and long. 77° 5′ 50″ E., 28 miles by road east of

Mysore. Pop. (1871), 5114, of whom 4624 are Hindus, 489 Muhammadans, and 1 Christian; municipal revenue (1874-75), £54; rate of taxation, 2½d. per head. Granted by Haidar Alí to his son Tipú in *jágír*. The old fort, built of mud and stone, is now in ruins. Two miles off is the scene of the only battle between the British army under General Harris and Tipú Sultán in 1799. Headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name.

Málwá.—An historical Province of Central India, roughly co-extensive with the western portion of the Central India Agency; bounded north by Hindustán Proper, east by Bundelkhand, south by the Deccan (Dakshin), and west by Rájputána. It consists of an upland region, with many fertile valleys, included within the main rivers of the Ganges, the Són, the Chambal, and the Narbadá (Nerbudda). In pre-historic times, the capital was at the ancient city of UJAIN (Oojein), associated in Hindu legend with the great king Vikramáditya, the date of whose accession (57 B.C.) has given the *Samvat* era to all India. The Muhammadan chronicler, Ferishta, describes Málwá as the kingdom of an independent Rájá, when Mahmúd of Ghazní invaded India in the beginning of the 11th century. It appears to have first fallen into the hands of the Musalmáns in about 1309, during the reign of the Delhi Emperor Alá-ud-dín. When the Tughlak dynasty was weakened by the repeated attacks of the Mughals, their viceroy in Málwá succeeded in establishing his independence. The first Musalmán king of Málwá was Diláwar Khán Ghori, of Afghán origin, who ruled from 1387 to 1405, and placed his capital at MANDU. He was succeeded by his son Hoshang Ghori, to whom are attributed most of the magnificent ruins still to be seen at Mandu. In 1526, the Ghori dynasty came to an end, being overthrown by Bahádur Sháh of Guzerát; and in 1570, Málwá was, on the conquest of Guzerát by the Emperor Akbar, incorporated in the Mughal dominions. On the decay of the Delhi Empire in the 18th century, Málwá was one of the first Provinces to be overrun by the Marhattás. In 1737, the Peshwá exacted *chauth* or one-fourth of the revenue, and at a later date, the two great military chiefs Sindhia and Holkar carved out for themselves kingdoms, which their descendants still retain. But the Marhattás set up no organized government, so that Málwá, besides its native population of predatory Bhíls, became the refuge of all the mercenary bandits of the Peninsula. In the beginning of the present century, the depredations of these bandits or Pindárís led to what is sometimes known as the fourth Marhattá war of 1817, under the Governor-Generalship of Lord Hastings. As the result, the Pindárís were extirpated; and under the rule of Sir John Malcolm, the Bhíls were tamed and the jungles cleared of wild beasts. Many of the Bhíls have been enlisted as British soldiers; and the headquarters of the Málwá Bhíl corps is at Sardárpur. At the present day, Málwá is best known as giving its name to the opium which is

annually exported from Bombay, to the amount of about 37,000 chests.

Málwá, Western.—A group of native States, forming a Political Agency in Central India, comprising the States of JAORA, RATLAM, SILLANA, and SITAMAU, all of which see separately.

Málwán.—Chief town of the Málwán Subdivision of Ratnágiri District, Bombay; situated on an island off the coast of the Konkan, 70 miles south of Ratnágiri, in lat. 16° 3′ 20″ N., and long. 73° 30′ 10″ E. Pop. (1872), 13,955. The town is little elevated above the water, and, the channel being narrow, it is at a short distance not easily distinguished from the mainland, on which, abreast of the island, stands a fort. This was formerly a stronghold of the Marhattá pirates, but in 1812 it was, under the treaty of Karvir, ceded to the British Government by the Rájá of Kolhápur. Iron-ore of good quality has been found in the neighbourhood. Average annual value of trade at the port of Málwán for the five years ending 1873-74—imports, £33,130; exports, £31,561. Sub-judge's court and post office.

Máná.—Pass in Garhwál District, North-Western Provinces, over the crest of the main Himálayan range, dividing British territory from the Chinese Empire. The route lies up the Máná valley, along the course of the Vishnuganga, past a village of the same name. Lat. 30° 47′ N., long. 79° 35′ E. Though very lofty, it is one of the easiest passes into Chinese Tartary from the south, and is therefore usually followed by Hindu pilgrims in their journeys to Lake Mánásarowar. Elevation of Máná village above sea level, 10,492 feet; of the pass, 18,000 feet.

Managoli.—Town in Kaládgi District, Bombay; situated 45 miles north by east of Kaládgi, in lat. 16° 40′ N., and long. 75° 54′ E. Pop. (1872), 6038.

Mánantadi (*Mánantawadi*, corruptly *Manantoddy*).—Town in Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 11° 48′ N., long. 76° 2′ 55″ E.; pop. (1871), 10,959; number of houses, 952. Chief town of the important Wainád Coffee District, and the headquarters of a Subdivisional officer. The population given above is that of the *amshom* or township. The actual *bázár* is inhabited by about 2000 persons; around it has grown up a considerable population of coffee-planters, their families, and employés. Besides several Government offices, contains a good club. Early in the century it was a military outpost, and in 1802 the garrison was massacred by the Kotiote rebels.

Manás.—River of Assam, which takes its rise far up in the Bhután Hills, and flows south into the Brahmaputra. It is navigable up to the foot of the hills by native craft all the year round, and might be navigated by river steamers of light draughts. Like all the neighbouring streams, its course in the plains is liable to great and frequent changes. The main channel forms the boundary between the Eastern Dwárs and Goálpára District on the east or right bank, and Kámrúp

District on the west. It enters the Brahmaputra in lat. 26° 15′ N., and long. 90° 41′ E., just opposite Goálpára town. Its chief tributaries are —on the right bank, the Aí, Daláni, Sonái, Bhándármi, Barch-hot, Gáburkára, Gailáng, and Sidnar; on the left bank, the complex river system of which the Chául-khoyá is now the chief drainage channel. The Manás is nowhere fordable in the plains, but it is crossed by a ferry just below the confluence of the Daláni.

Manása (*Monassa*).—Town in Indore State, Central India; situated in lat. 24° 27′ N., and long. 75° 13′ E., on the route from Guna (Goona) to Nímach (Neemuch), 162 miles west of the former and 18 east of the latter. Elevation above the sea, 1440 feet. Pop., according to Thornton (1862), 4100; number of houses, 1030.

Manása Bal.—Lake in Kashmír State, Punjab; celebrated for its picturesque beauty. Lat. 34° 13′ N., long. 74° 58′ E. The remains of a palace built by Nur Jahán, the queen of Jahángír, stand upon its northern bank. The lake discharges its waters into the Jhelum (Jhílam) upon its right side.

Mánasarowar (*Mánasa-sarovara*).—A lake in Thibetan territory beyond the great southern wall of the Himálayas, in about 30° 8′ N. lat., and 81° 53′ E. long. Mánasarowar lies to the south of the sacred Kailás mountain, and, like that celebrated peak, occupies an important place in Hindu mythology. The *Varju Purána* relates that when the ocean fell from heaven upon Mount Meru, it ran four times round the mountain, then it divided into four rivers which ran down the mountain, and formed four great lakes—Arunoda on the east, Siloda on the west, Mahá-bhadra on the north, and Mánasa on the south. This legend may dimly represent the fact that the Kailás mountain forms a great water parting to the north of the southern range of the Himálayas. The Indus starts eastward from its northern slope; the Sutlej takes off to the south-west from its southern side, and the Tsan-pu, or Brahmaputra, flows eastwards from its eastern base. The Sanskrit mythologists believed that the Ganges issued from the sacred lake Mánasarowar. This, of course, was a pure conjecture, and an erroneous one. Geographers held that the Sutlej took its rise in the lake, but the true origin of that river is ascribed by Moorcroft to the Rávana-hráda lake, close to the west of the Mánasarowar, and perhaps connected with it. The Mánasarowar formed a beautiful feature of the Elysium of the Hindus, or Siva's paradise on the Kailás mountain. It is one of the four lakes of which the gods drink.

Manawár.—One of the petty States of South Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue in 1876, £150; tribute of £14 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and £2 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Mánbhúm.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 22° 37′ and 24° 3′ N. lat., and between 85° 51′

and 87° 16′ E. long. Area (Parliamentary Abstract, 1878), 4921 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1872, 995,570 persons. Mánbhúm District forms the eastern part of the Chutiá Nágpur Division. It is bounded on the north by the Districts of Hazáribágh and Bírbhúm; on the east by Bardwán and Bánkurá; on the south by Singbhúm and Midnapur; and on the west by Lohárdagá and Hazáribágh. A considerable portion of the northern and north-eastern boundary is marked by the Barákhar and Dámodar rivers; while, on the west and south, the Subarnarekhá river divides the District from Lohárdagá and Singbhúm. The administrative headquarters are at PURULIA.

Physical Aspects.—Mánbhúm forms the first step of a gradual descent from the tableland of Chutiá Nágpur to the delta of Lower Bengal. The undulations which are so characteristic of Chutiá Nágpur here become less pronounced, and follow each other at longer intervals than in the other Districts of the Division, while level tracts of considerable extent are of frequent occurrence. In the northern and eastern portions of the District, the country is open, and consists of a series of rolling downs, dotted here and there with isolated conical hills. The soil is for the most part composed of hard, dry ferruginous gravel, but many of the lower levels are filled with good alluvial soil, which yields a fine rice crop. During the hot weather, the dry red soil and the scarcity of trees give to this part of the country a scorched and dreary appearance; but in the rains, the fresh green of the young rice, and the varying foliage of the low jungle, form contrasts of colouring with the soil, and the scenery assumes that 'park-like aspect' remarked upon by Dr. Hooker. In the western and southern portions of the District, the country is more broken, and the scenery much more picturesque. The principal hills of the District are—Dalmá (3407 feet), the crowning peak of a range of the same name, a long rolling ridge rising gradually to its highest point and sinking as gradually to the level of the smaller hills which surround it; Gangábárí or Gajboru (2220 feet), the highest peak of the Baghmúndí range, situated about 20 miles south-west of Puruliá; and Pánchkot or Pánchet (1600 feet), on the summit of which stands the old palace of the Rájás of Pánchet. The hills are all covered with dense jungle. The principal river of Mánbhúm is the Kasái, which flows through the District from north-west to south-east, the total length of its course being about 171 miles. As it leaves Mánbhúm, it turns almost due south, and passes into Midnapur District. A considerable floating trade in timber, chiefly *sál*, is carried on during the rains between Ráipur, the southernmost *parganá* of Mánbhúm, and Midnapur. Just above Ráipur the Kasái forms rapids and several picturesque waterfalls of no great height. The Barákhar and Dámodar have already been mentioned as forming part of the northern and north-eastern boundary of the District; and the Subarnarekhá, as dividing it on the west and south from Lohárdagá and

Singbhúm. The only other rivers of any importance are the Dhalkisor, which rises in the east of Mánbhúm, and after a short south-easterly course enters Bánkurá District; and the Silái, also rising in the east of the District, and flowing south-east into Midnapur. The latter river is subject to destructive floods, and the village of Simlápál on its north bank is inundated almost every year. The useful timber found in Mánbhúm is very limited in quantity, forest covering but a small portion of the area; and it was reported in 1876 that at the rate at which *sál* was then being cut for railway sleepers, the supply could not last for many years. Although *sál* is the only timber cut for exportation, about 30 species of trees, yielding either ornamental or durable woods, occur in tolerable abundance. The jungle products of Mánbhúm are the same as those of the adjoining District of HAZARIBAGH. Tigers, leopards, bears, wolves, and jackals are not uncommon, while various kinds of deer abound, and the bison is occasionally heard of in the south of the District. Elephants come every year from the south-east into the hilly country between Mánbhúm and Singbhúm. The short-tailed *manis* (Manis crassicaudata or pentadactyla), which, owing to its peculiar habits, is one of the least known quadrupeds in India, is occasionally found in the jungles bordering on Singbhúm. This curious animal has been described by Lieutenant R. S. Tickell in the *Journal of the Asiatic Society* for 1842, and his account of it is quoted in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvii. pp. 266-268.

Administrative History.—The territory comprised in the present District of Mánbhúm was acquired by the British, with the grant of the *diwání* of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, in 1765, and was occupied by us some time within the following five years. Up to 1805 the estates which now belong to Mánbhúm were attached, some to Bírbhúm, and some to Midnapur; but in that year they were formed, with a few others, into a separate District, called the Jungle Maháls. In 1833, that District was broken up, all the estates included in it, except Senpahári, Shergarh, and Bishnupur, being withdrawn from the regular system of administration, and placed under an officer called the Agent to the Governor-General for the South-West Frontier. These, with the estate of Dhalbhúm, detached at the same time from Midnapur, constituted the District of Mánbhúm. In 1846, owing to a press of criminal work, Dhalbhúm was transferred to Singbhúm District; and in 1871, the boundaries of the District, as they at present exist, were finally rectified, and the civil, criminal, and revenue jurisdictions made conterminous. In 1854, the designation of the Province was changed from South-West Frontier Agency to Chutiá Nágpur, and that of the superintending officer from Governor-General's Agent to Commissioner.

Population.—In 1867, at the conclusion of the Revenue Survey of Mánbhúm, the population of the District was estimated at 694,498, the calculation being based on the ascertained number of houses, allowing

an average of 4½ persons per house. In 1872, it was hoped that, as Mánbhúm contains a large proportion of Bengálís, and is more civilised than the other Districts of the Chutiá Nágpur Division, a simultaneous Census might be effected, as throughout Bengal generally. This, however, was found impracticable, and a gradual enumeration was made by a special salaried agency. The Census disclosed a population of 995,570 persons, dwelling in 6368 villages and 195,665 houses, the average density of the population being 203 to the square mile; number of villages per square mile, 1·3; houses per square mile, 40; persons per village, 156; persons per house, 5·1. Mánbhúm is nearly twice as thickly populated as any other District of the Chutiá Nágpur Division, and its population is on the whole evenly distributed. Classified according to sex, there are 500,936 males and 494,634 females; proportion of males, 50·3 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years old—205,503 boys and 164,370 girls; total children, 369,873, or 37·15 per cent. of the District population. The proportion of children, as usual in Districts in which the aboriginal element is strong, is abnormally large. The excessive proportion of male children is explained by the fact that here, as elsewhere in India, natives consider that girls attain womanhood at an earlier age than boys reach manhood, and many girls were thus entered as women. The ethnical division of the people is returned as follows:—Non-Asiatics (Europeans), 39; mixed races, 13; Asiatics, 995,518. Aboriginal tribes number 238,872; semi-Hinduized aborigines, 213,887. Hindu castes, 496,035; persons of Hindu origin not recognising caste, 13,101; and Muhammadans, 33,622. The most numerous aboriginal tribe is that of the Santáls, who number 132,445. Of Bhúmij Kols, there are 89,827; and of Bhars and Rájbhars, 10,197. Amongst the semi-Hinduized aborigines, the Baurís number 82,938, and the Bhúiyás, 31,651. The Bhúmij Kols are the characteristic aboriginal race of Mánbhúm, as the Hos are of Singbhúm, and the Mundas and Uráons of Lohárdagá. Colonel Dalton, in his *Ethnology of Bengal*, roughly describes them as being located in the country between the Kasái and Subarnarekhá rivers. They had once large settlements to the north of the former river, but they were dislodged by Aryans, who, as Hindus of the Kurmí caste, now occupy their old village sites. The Bhúmij Kols of Western Mánbhúm are pure Mundas. They inhabit the tract of the country which lies on both sides of the Subarnarekhá river; bounded on the west by the edge of the Chutiá Nágpur plateau, on the east by the hill range of which Ajodhyá is the crowning peak, on the south by the Singbhúm Hills, and on the north by the hills forming the boundary between Lohárdagá, Hazáribágh, and Mánbhúm Districts. This region contains an enormous number of Mundárí graveyards, and may fairly be considered one of the very earliest settlements of the Munda race. On the eastern side of the Ajodhyá range, which forms a complete barrier to ordinary communication, all is

changed. Both the Mundárí language and the title of Munda have dropped out of use, and the aborigines of this tract have adopted Hindu customs, and are fast becoming Hindus. The Bhúmij Kols of the Jungle Maháls were once the terror of the surrounding Districts, disturbing the peace of the country by constant lawless outbreaks. It does not appear that on any occasion they rose simply to redress their own wrongs. It was sometimes in support of a turbulent chief, sometimes to oppose the Government in a policy which they did not approve, though they may have had very little personal interest in the matter. They are now a more peaceable tribe, though they have lost to a great extent the simplicity and truthfulness of character for which their cognates are generally distinguished. This degeneration is probably attributable to their connection with the Bengálí Hindus. An interesting account of the manners and customs of the tribe is contained in Colonel Dalton's *Ethnology of Bengal* (quoted in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xvii. pp. 278-284), from which the above facts are taken. Some account of the Santáls, who number in this District 132,445, will be found in the article on the SANTAL PARGANAS. There is a considerable emigration to the tea Districts of Cáchár, Sylhet, and the Assam valley, the registered number of emigrants in 1872-73 being 1933. The Bráhmans of Mánbhúm number 53,701, and the Rájputs 16,588. The number of Goálás, the chief pastoral caste, is 33,063; and amongst agricultural castes, the principal one is that of the Kurmís (of whom there are 137,934), the most numerous caste in the District. The Hindus, as roughly grouped together on the basis of religion, number 827,936, or 83·1 per cent. of the population, including persons in every grade of social position; the number is continually being increased by the gradual inclusion of semi-aboriginal tribes in the general mass of Hindus. Muhammadans form 3·4 per cent. of the population, numbering 33,622. The Christian community consists of 319 males and 273 females; total, 592, or ·06 per cent. of the population. Most of them are engaged in agriculture. A branch of the German Mission at Ránchí is at work in the District, with stations at Telkupí on the Dámodar, and at Matgudha. Mánbhúm is a thoroughly rural District, and no towns in the proper sense of the word have yet developed. Two municipalities have a population of over 5000—namely, PURULIA and RAGHUNATHPUR. Three other towns, Jhálidá, Kásipur, and Mánbázár, were estimated in 1869 to contain more than 2000 inhabitants each. The only objects of interest in the District are ruins of Jain temples near Puruliá, and at several points along the banks of the Kasái, Dámodar, and other rivers. The most noteworthy of these will be found mentioned in the articles on BUDHPUR, DALMI, and PALMA. On the Pánchkot Hill are the ruins of the ancient residence of the Pánchet Rájás. The remains are extensive, and some of the buildings appear to have been once double-storied. They are now embedded

in dense jungle, though the place has not been deserted for more than a hundred years. Above the palaces, some 200 or 300 feet up the hillside, are the remains of two stone Hindu temples, well built and highly ornamented.

Agriculture. — It has already been stated that the surface of the District consists of a succession of rolling uplands, with intervening hollows, along which the drainage runs off to join the larger streams. The lower slopes of these uplands, and the swampy ground between, supply the only ground on which a wet rice crop can be grown. The system of rice cultivation, by terracing the sides of these slopes, has been described in the article on HAZARIBAGH DISTRICT. Three principal crops of rice are grown—namely, *gorá dhán* (sown broadcast early in May on tablelands and the tops of ridges), *nuán* (the autumn crop, sown in April and May, on the middle and higher levels of the terrace slopes, and reaped in the end of September or beginning of October), and *haimantik* or *áman* (the winter crop). The *áman* rice is the principal crop of the District, and is cultivated on the lowest levels of the terraced slopes, and on moist land lying beneath the embankments of tanks. It is sown in a nursery after the first showers of rain at the end of May and the beginning of June, and is subsequently planted out in the fields. The crop is harvested in December and January. Of these three rice crops, 44 principal varieties are named. The other crops of Mánbhúm are wheat, barley, Indian corn, *arhar*, peas, beans, *tíl*, mustard, linseed, jute, hemp, sugar-cane, indigo (very little), *pán*, and tobacco. Tobacco is grown only on high land, and the entire area under this crop is roughly estimated at 265 acres. It is chiefly consumed locally, but a little is exported to Singbhúm. Virginia tobacco has been recently introduced, and gives a yield double that obtained from the indigenous plant. The rent for ordinary land is about 9s. an acre, and a fair average out-turn from such land would be from 24 to 30 *maunds* of unhusked rice an acre. Superior land, renting at 18s. an acre, should yield from 48 to 60 *maunds* an acre. Wages and prices have risen steadily of late years. Agricultural labourers, who formerly received 1½d. a day, earned in 1870, 2¼d., and the daily wages of a blacksmith have risen from 4½d. to 6d. The price of rice in 1870 varied from 6s. a cwt. for the best husked quality, to 1s. 10d. per cwt. for common unhusked paddy. Rotation of crops is practised to a limited extent, and manure is generally used throughout the District for all crops to which the cultivator can afford to apply it.

Natural Calamities.—Blights occur occasionally on a small scale; and in 1865 a flight of locusts passed over the District, without, however, doing serious damage to the harvest. Owing to the completeness of the natural drainage of the country, floods are unknown; but the same physical conformation which saves the District from floods, renders

it peculiarly liable to droughts caused by deficient rainfall. General droughts occurred in 1851 and 1865, the distress caused in the latter year being very severe. Partial droughts are common, and, to provide against them, the husbandmen resort to tanks and high-level reservoirs to irrigate their fields. The famine of 1866, following on the local drought of 1865, was felt with great severity in most parts of Mánbhúm, the distress being most intense in the *parganás* of Barábhúm, Mánbhúm, and Ráipur, in the south and south-east of the District. The highest price reached for ordinary rice was £1, 11s. 3d. per cwt. When the price of ordinary rice rises to 11s. 2d., it may be assumed that famine is at hand. In ordinary years, the District grows more than sufficient grain to meet its local wants; but the means of communication are imperfect, and the south-western portion of Mánbhúm is in danger of isolation in time of scarcity.

Commerce, Trade, etc.—The trade of Mánbhúm is principally carried on by means of permanent markets, the chief of which are at Jháldá, Puruliá, Mánbázár, Ichágarh, Raghunáthpur, Chás, Gobindpur, and Barábhúm. There are also periodical fairs, but these have declined in importance of late years, as everything in demand can now be bought at the permanent markets. The principal articles of export are oil-seeds, pulses, *ghí*, lac, indigo, *tasar* silk cocoons, timber, resin, coal, and (in good seasons) rice and paddy. The imports consist chiefly of salt, piece-goods, brass utensils, and unwrought iron. The weaving of cotton cloth in hand-looms is carried on all over the District as a domestic industry, and a little silk cloth is woven for export at Raghunáthpur, Sinhbázár, and Gopináthpur. A fair quantity of *tasar* silk is annually produced in Mánbhúm; and there is no doubt that if the commercial demand for this article were to increase, the industry might be very largely developed. Coal is found at JHARIA, in the *parganá* of the same name. The field is situated a few miles south and south-east of Párasnáth Hill, and an account of it will be found in its proper alphabetical place. The total length of roads in Mánbhúm is returned at about 500 miles.

Administration.—The administrative history of Mánbhúm has been sketched in a previous section. Owing to the total loss of the District Records in the Mutiny, the details of revenue and expenditure for earlier years cannot now be ascertained. In 1860, the revenue of the District was £35,660, and the expenditure, £22,662. In 1870, the revenue had fallen to £30,493, and the expenditure to £18,888, the decrease in revenue being attributed partly to a difference in the system of accounts in the two years, and partly to a falling off in the excise returns, owing to the substitution of central distilleries for the out-still system. The land tax does not yield so large a proportion of the revenue in Mánbhúm as in other Districts of Bengal. The Permanent Settlement was extended to the District at a time when it was unprepared for such a measure, and the assessment is disproportionately light.

In 1870-71, there were 37 estates, held by 35 proprietors, paying a total land revenue of £9215, or an average payment of £249 from each estate and £263 from each individual proprietor. A peculiar feature in the land revenue administration of the District, is the standing order that landed property shall not be sold in satisfaction either of a private debt or a State demand without the sanction of the Commissioner of the Division. This restriction was originally imposed as a political measure. The old landed proprietors were extremely improvident, but possessed great feudal influence over their tenants, and it was feared that the transfer of ancient estates might lead to disaffection. When a landholder becomes so involved that his creditors are obliged to apply to Government for aid to recover their dues, the estate is attached by the authorities and managed as economically as possible by them, an allowance being made to the proprietor, and the surplus devoted to the liquidation of debts. For police purposes, the District is divided into 10 *thánás* or police circles. In 1877, the Government police force numbered 337 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £6467. There was also a municipal police of 48 men, costing £267, and a rural police or village watch of 6780 men, costing in money or lands an estimated sum of £10,211. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 7165 officers and men, giving 1 man to every 0·68 square mile of the area or to every 139 of the population. The total cost was £16,945, or an average of £3, 8s. 8d. per square mile, and 4¼d. per head. There is a principal jail at Puruliá, and a Subdivisional lock-up at Gobindpur. The progress of education in Mánbhúm has, till within the last few years, been very slow. In 1860, there was only 1 Government school in the District; by 1870-71, the number of Government and aided schools had increased to 23, attended by 960 pupils. In 1872-73, owing to the creation of a number of primary schools under Sir G. Campbell's grant-in-aid scheme, the number of Government and aided schools was 183, and of pupils, 5271. In 1877, the number of such schools was 392, with 9616 pupils, or 9·65 pupils to every 1000 of the population. The District is divided for administrative purposes into 2 Subdivisions, with their headquarters at Puruliá and Gobindpur. The number of fiscal divisions (*parganás*) is 45.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Mánbhúm is fairly healthy. The prevailing diseases are intermittent and remittent fevers, diarrhœa, and dysentery; cholera and small-pox frequently occur in an epidemic form. The average temperature during 1869 was—in January 71° F., in April 101°, and in August 80°. Total rainfall in that year, 48·6 inches.

Manchenhalli.—Village in Kolár District, Mysore State; on right bank of the North Pinakini. Pop. (1871), 1586. The car festival of Venkatranáma-swámi, held for two days at the full moon of the month of Phalgun, is annually attended by 2000 persons.

Manchhar.—Lake in Sehwan Subdivision, Karáchi (Kurrachee)

District, Sind, lying between 26° 22′ and 26° 28′ N. lat., and between 67° 37′ and 67° 47′ E. long. It is formed by the expansion of the Western Nára and the Aral. The first flows into it from the north, and the latter from the Indus westward at a distance of about 12 miles; but the supply from the Nára is trifling in quantity when compared with that thrown in by the Aral. It is, however, this latter stream which affords a means of discharge for the redundant waters of the lake. During the period of inundation, the Manchhar may be estimated at from 15 to 20 miles in length, with a breadth of about 10 miles; but when the water is low, this area is greatly contracted, and is then probably not more than 10 miles in length. The space left uncovered by the receding water is sown with grain, especially wheat, yielding magnificent crops. Though shallow at the sides, the lake has a considerable depth of water in the middle; and so great is the quantity of fine fish that hundreds of men and boats are employed. The fish are taken chiefly by spearing, the great profusion of weed preventing the employment of nets. In the season when the lotus is in blossom, the lake presents a very beautiful appearance, as its surface, farther than the eye can reach, is covered with an unbroken succession of blossom and leaves. Within the last five or six years the Indus, which formerly flowed close to the town of Sehwan, has now left it 3 miles inland, and the Aral before reaching the Indus falls into a marsh, producing a bar of mud which prevents it from acting as an efficient source of drainage to the lake. The consequence of this has been that from 4000 to 5000 acres of the best land in the lake are now never exposed, and cannot any longer be cultivated. The question of removing this bar has been under the consideration of the Public Works Department, and a steam dredge from England has already done much towards enabling the Aral to again become an efficient drainer of the superabundant waters of the Manchhar Lake.

The fisheries of the lake yield an annual revenue of about £170, the rule being that one-third of the fish caught becomes the property of Government. The principal fish, in addition to the *pala*, which may be considered the finest in Sind, are—the *dambhro* (or *chelri*), a reddish-coloured fish, often attaining an enormous size, and ranking, according to native taste, next to the *pala* in excellence; the *moráko*; the *gandan*, a long, sharp, and very bony fish, of a silver colour, in length from 3 to 5 feet; the *shakúr*, the *murrel* of the Deccan; the *jerkho*, the largest fish in Sind; *goj* and *lor*, or eels; *khaggo*, or catfish; the *popri*, the *dohi*, the *theli*; *gangat*, or prawns; the *danur*, and the *singári*. A very interesting description of the methods of catching fish in the Manchhar, and of netting the wild-fowl which frequent the lake in myriads during the winter months, will be found in Mr. Hughes' *Gazetteer of Sind* (2d edition, pp. 696 *sqq*.), from which work this article has been compiled.

Mandá.—Headquarters of a *tháná* or police circle in Rájsháhí District, Bengal; situated in lat. 24° 46′ 10″ N., and long. 88° 41′ 30″ E., on the

west bank of the Atrái river. Seat of an annual fair in honour of Ráma (the seventh incarnation of Vishnu), on the occasion of the Hindu festival *Srí Nabami*, held in March or April. The fair is attended by about 15,000 people from all parts of the District.

Mandal.—Municipal town in Ahmedábád District, Bombay; situated 15 miles north-west of the Viramgam railway station, in lat. 23° 17′ N., and long. 71° 58′ E. Pop. (1872), 6774; municipal income, £128. Post office.

Mandalay.—Capital of Independent Burma; situated in lat. 21° 59′ 4″ N., and long. 96° 8′ E., about 2 miles from the left bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), in a level plain at the foot of an isolated hill 600 feet in height, from which the city takes its name. Founded by the father of the present king, who transferred to it the seat of Government from the neighbouring city of Amarapura in 1860. Mandalay lies beyond British territory; but as the seat of a British Resident, and as the capital of Independent Burma, requires some notice. The following article has been kindly supplied by General Fytche, C.S.I., late Chief Commissioner of British Burma.

The city proper is laid out in a square, each side of which is a little over a mile in length. It is enclosed by a brick wall 26 feet high and 3 feet thick, crenelated at the top. In the rear of the wall is an earthen parapet 30 feet thick at its base, rising to a banquette 6 feet broad, and reaching within 4 feet of the upper surface of the wall, so as to allow of fire being opened through the indentations. The flanking defences are provided for by slightly projecting turrets placed 200 feet apart. At the four angles, two of these meet together and form one large bastion. The wall is pierced with 12 gates, 3 on each side, covered by masonry barbicans or traverses. The gateways are not arched over, but are surmounted, as also the turrets and bastions, with wooden pavilions or watch-towers having double and triple roofs. A deep moat, 100 feet broad, with its escarp 60 feet from the walls, extends along all four sides, and is always kept full of water. It is crossed by five bridges, two on the west or river face, and one on each of the other three sides. No provision has been made for the defence of these bridges, except that afforded from the walls; but being framed of timber, they could easily be removed or destroyed on the approach of an enemy. There is no glacis or any other advanced work beyond the moat. The palace of the king occupies the central space of the city; the walls of its enclosure are laid symmetrically with those of the city, and each face is about 370 yards in length. The outermost enclosure consists of a stockade of teak-wood posts 20 feet high, and within it are three successive enclosures, bounded by brick walls. The main entrance to the palace is in the centre of the eastern face. The palace is built within the inner enclosure; and its front, which faces the east, contains the Great Hall of Audience, 260 feet long, composed of teak timber, elaborately carved and gilded, erected on a terrace of brick-

work 10 feet high. It is in the form of a colonnade, the central part running back, forming a nave with two side aisles. At the extremity of this nave is a space like a chancel (said to be the exact centre of the city) where stands the throne, over which a grand *shwé-pya-that* or gilded spire rises in light, graceful diminishing stages, visible from all parts of the city and surrounding country. Behind this hall is the *Byé-doik* or Privy Council Chamber, and other offices; and to the westward are the private apartments and the pleasure-grounds. In the same enclosure also stand the treasury, arsenal, powder magazine, mint, stables of the white elephant, and the lofty *Campanile*, where the water-clock is placed, which gives the time to the palace and the city. In the other two enclosures stand the *Hlowt-dau* or Hall of the Supreme Council, the *Yún-dau* or High Court, and barracks and guard-houses for the troops. Around the palace walls a wide space has been laid out as an esplanade, on the farther margin of which are situated most of the houses of the princes, ministers of State, and court officials. These are extensive timber structures, with panelled wooden walls, or of bamboo-mat panels framed in teak-wood. The roofs are single, double, and triple, with carved eaves and gable-ends. The character of the house, and especially of the roof, is a matter of regulation depending upon the rank of the occupant.

The city may be said to consist of two parts, mural and extra-mural; the streets in the former run parallel with the walls, dividing the building sites into rectangular blocks. The great majority of the houses, both within and without the walls, are constructed of bamboos and bamboo-matting, slightly raised from the ground on posts; here and there brick and wooden buildings, generally the property of Mughal and Chinese settlers, are to be found. The streets inside the city are very wide, the principal ones being lined with tamarind trees. At a distance of a few feet from the house-fronts run enclosures of bamboo lattice-work, which are whitewashed, and often gracefully festooned with creepers and flowering shrubs. In the suburbs, the roads are laid out with something of the same regularity as in the city, but of less width, with the exception of the principal road, the *Kulah-dan* or foreign quarter, inhabited chiefly by Armenians, Mughals, and the few European residents. The number of houses in the city and suburbs is said to be, in round numbers, 12,000; and the population is roughly estimated at 65,000. Monasteries and pagodas are dotted about in open spaces both within and without the walls. The former are of the same style of architecture as the houses of the princes and chief nobles, but frequently are even more elaborately carved and gilded. The normal shape of the Burmese *tsé-dí* or pagoda is that of a cone or circular pyramid of solid brickwork, supported on a square base, and crowned by a tapering spire of gilt ironwork, formed in three crowns, called a *htí*, and typical of the Buddhist triad.

Trade and Manufactures.—The great highways by which trade is conducted with the British possessions are the rivers Irawadi (Irrawaddy) and Sittaung. The entire value of the river traffic, as recorded at the British frontier custom-houses of Thayet-myo and Toung-ngú for the year 1876-77, amounted to £3,070,465—namely, imports, £1,589,762, and exports, £1,480,703. The tonnage employed in carrying this trade consisted of 11 steamers of the Irawadi Flotilla Company, 4 belonging to the King of Burma, and 20,161 native boats. The tonnage capacity of the latter amounted to 201,986 tons. Besides this river trade, a considerable traffic is carried on by numerous land routes, on which a systematic attempt to supervise and collect statistics is now being carried out. The principal imports consist of rice, piece-goods, cotton twist and yarn, raw silk, betel-nut, *nga-pí*, and dried fish, salt, and crockery; the principal exports are raw cotton, teak timber, petroleum, cutch, jaggery and molasses, hides, horns, ivory, stick-lac, wheat and pulse, tobacco, dyes, and pickled tea. The overland traffic with China is an interesting branch of Burmese trade. The exports include raw cotton (the chief staple), British manufactures, salt, edible birds'-nests and fish maws, jade stone, amber and rubies; and the imports—silk, gold-leaf, copper, quicksilver, vermilion, velvet, drugs, tea, fresh and dried fruits. No trustworthy statistics have ever been obtained of the value of this trade, and it has been variously estimated at from £500,000 to £800,000. A number of *bázárs* or markets are scattered throughout the city and suburbs, and well supply the wants of the people. Artisans and traders in the same article cluster together in groups and give their names to wards, but are not strictly confined to one locality as is the case in most eastern cities. The principal manufacture is weaving in silk. Manchester imports are gradually displacing home-made cloth; but the native silk manufacture, notwithstanding its patterns having been imitated to suit Burmese taste, still holds its own, and is infinitely preferred for strength of fabric and the permanence and beauty of its dyes. The *repoussé* gold and silver work is very beautiful and finished in execution; and the ivory and wood carvings, in clear and bold *alto-relievo*, are artistic in composition and design. The Burmese have a great love for bells and gongs, and are very expert in casting them. Some rude cutlery and *dhas*, or native swords, are made. The late king established a gun manufactory, but the guns cast are of a very inferior description.

Administration.—The present king, who is nineteen years of age, succeeded his father on the throne in October 1878, and is the eleventh in succession from Alompra, the founder of the dynasty. The Burmese kings claim to be descended from an old Aryan clan—the tribe of the Sakyas—the family to which Gautama, the last Buddha, belonged; and the earliest date in Burmese history, or rather in the story which the Burmese mix up with their own, appears to be 691 B.C.,

the grand epoch fixed by Arjuna, King of Kapilavasta. The assumption of this ancient pedigree by the present royal family is, however, entirely without foundation. They are descended from the obscure hunter Alompra, who usurped the throne only a little more than a century ago. The administration is absolute despotism. The king is under no restraint whatever, saving his voluntary respect for Buddhist rules and precepts; otherwise he is lord and master of the life and property of every one of his subjects. There is no hereditary rank in the kingdom, and the so-called nobles are only officials appointed or dismissed at his will. The young king was said to have commenced by remitting several royal monopolies and vexatious taxes which tended to paralyze commerce, and by promises of a more liberal form of government than has hitherto existed. But his subsequent palace massacres, and the commotions and intrigues of his court, have not fulfilled the hopes at first formed of his reign.

Medical Aspects.—The general sturdy and vigorous appearance of the Burmese is a good criterion of the healthiness of the climate. The greatest heat is felt in April and May, before the setting in of the periodical rains, when the thermometer rises occasionally as high as 95° F. The transitions of the seasons are sudden, and earthquakes are not infrequent, and often usher in and conclude the wet season. The most prevalent complaints are fever, dysentery, and hepatic diseases.

Mandapeta (*Mundapett*).—Town in Godávari District, Madras. Lat. 16° 50′ N., long. 81° 58′ E.; pop. (1871), 5440; number of houses, 1288.

Mandar (*Mandargiri*).—Hill in Bhágalpur District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 50′ 25″ N., long. 87° 4′ 41″ E.; upwards of 700 feet in height; situated about 30 miles south of the town of Bhágalpur. This mountain, which possesses the greatest sanctity in Hindu mythology, consists of a huge mass of granite, overgrown near its summit with low jungle. Numerous small artificial tanks have been cut in the sides of the solid rock; and the figure of a huge serpent, carved in relief on its surface, has been made to coil around it. For about two-thirds of its height, the hill can be ascended by steps hewn in the rock. Mandar Hill is first mentioned in the account of the Great Deluge, when Vishnu floated on the waters in a profound slumber. Besides being a place of pilgrimage, this spot abounds in interesting ruins and natural curiosities of great interest to the antiquary. For details, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xiv. pp. 95-102.

Mandáwar.—Ancient town in Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 28′ 50″ N., long. 78° 10′ 25″ E.; pop. (1872), 7622, consisting of 2889 Hindus and 4733 Muhammadans. Distant from Bijnaur 8 miles north. Dates back to a remote antiquity,

being mentioned as a flourishing city by Hiouen Thsang, the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, in the 7th century. About 1114 A.D., some Agarwálá Banias from Murári, in Meerut District, crossed the Ganges into Bijnaur, found Mandáwar in ruins, and restored it as a settlement of their own. Manufacture of papier-maché.

Mandesar.—Town in Gwalior State, Central India. Situated on a tributary of the Chambal. It is about 80 miles from Ujjain (Oojein), and is famous as giving name to the final treaty between Holkar and the British Government in 1818, at the end of the Pindári War.

Mándgáon.—Town in Wardhá District, Central Provinces, near the river Waná; 19 miles south-west-west of Wardhá. Pop. (1870), 3195. Mándgáon has a town school-house; and at the market, held every Tuesday, a good trade in cattle takes place.

Mandháta.—Island in the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river, attached to Nimár District, Central Provinces; famous for its numerous temples, including the great shrine of Omkár, a form of Siva. The word is derived from the mystic syllable 'Om,' which is employed in the beginning of all prayers, and comprehends all the gods, the Vedas, and the three spheres of the world. According to the *Narmadá Khand*, which professes to be a portion of the *Skanda Purána*, the island was originally called Baidúrya Mani Parvat; but its name was changed to Mandháta as a boon from Omkár to the Rájá Mándhátri, seventeenth of the Solar race, who performed a great sacrifice to the god.

The island covers an area of about five-sixths of a square mile; and a deep ravine runs through it from north to south. Towards the north, the ground slopes gently to the water; but the southern and eastern faces terminate in bluff precipices, 400 or 500 feet high. At this point, the southern bank of the Narbadá is equally steep; and between the cliffs the river forms an exceedingly deep and silent pool, full of alligators and large fish, many of which are so tame as to take grain off the lower steps of the sacred *ghâts*. The northern branch of the Narbadá is styled the Káverí; and the belief is that a stream of that name, which enters the Narbadá about a mile higher up, passes unmixed through its waters, and again leaves it at Mandháta, thus making at this favoured spot a double *sangam* or junction of two holy rivers. On both sides of the Narbadá, the rocks are of a greenish hue, very boldly stratified, and probably of hornstone slate.

Mandháta was a seat of Siva-worship at an early age. The shrine of Omkár in the island, and the shrine of Amreswar (Lord of the Immortals) on the southern bank of the river, are two of the twelve great Lingas which existed in India when Mahmúd of Ghazní demolished the temple of Somnáth in 1024 A.D. The Bráhmans who now officiate at the shrine, however, wish to exclude Omkár from the twelve Lingas styled *A'di* or

first, and the *Narmadá Khand* supports their view. The *Kási Khand* and other Sivaite writings are against them; and pilgrims who have vowed to visit the Bára Jyotí Lingas, offer their adorations both to Omkár and Amareswar. Regarding the latter, however, they are avowedly left by the Bráhmans under a pious mistake. During the wars of the 17th and 18th centuries, the south banks were deserted and overgrown by jungle; and when, towards the end of the 18th century, the Peshwá desired to rebuild the temple, neither the Linga nor its temple could be found. A new temple was, however, built, together with a group of smaller ones. Some time afterwards, the old Linga was accidentally discovered, standing on four *arghás*, one above the other, which show that it had existed through the four ages of the world. Moreover, the Benares *pandits* recognised it as the true Linga, since it was situated in a line with Omkár and the Kapila Sangam, where a small stream joins the Narbadá. Ráo Daulat Sinh, the late Rájá of Mandháta, built a temple over it; but its honours, and even its name, had been appropriated by its younger rival, and it is now known as the Viswa Náth. The Rájá of Mandháta, who is hereditary custodian of all the modern temples, is a Bhitála, claiming to be twenty-eighth in descent from a Chauhán Rájput named Bhárat Sinh, who took Mandháta from Nathú Bhíl in 1165. Probably he only married the daughter of the Bhíl chief, as Nathú's descendants are still the hereditary custodians of the ancient temples on the top and north side of the hill. At that time, a Gosáin, named Daryáo Náth, was the only worshipper of Omkár on the island, which pilgrims could not visit for fear of a terrible god, called Kál Bhairava, and his consort, Kálí Deví, who fed on human flesh. At last, Daryáo Náth, by his austerities, shut up Kálí Deví in a cave, the mouth of which may yet be seen, appeasing her by erecting an image outside to receive worship; while he arranged that Kál Bhairava should in future receive human sacrifices at regular intervals. From that time, devotees have dashed themselves over the Bírkhala cliffs, at the eastern end of the island, on to the rocks by the river brink, where the terrible god resided; till, in 1824, the British officer in charge of Nimár witnessed the last such offering to Kál Bhairava. The disciples of Daryáo Náth still enjoy lands on account of the worship of Omkár. The old temples about Mandháta have suffered greatly from the iconoclastic zeal of the Muhammadans, who ruled the country from about 1400. Every dome has been overthrown, every figure mutilated. The walls of the four forts are formed of uncemented blocks of stone, partly the basalt of the hill itself, and partly a yellow sandstone, which must have been brought from a considerable distance. Fine carvings and statues of gods ornament the horizontal gateways. The oldest of the Sivaite temples is probably that on the Bírkhala rocks. Unlike the other temples, which present

the ordinary shrine and porch, it consists of a courtyard, with a verandah and colonnades supported on massive pillars, boldly carved in rectilineal figures. On the hill stand the ruins of a very fine temple, now called Sidheswar Mahádeva. To each of the four sides of the shrine was added a projection containing a doorway; and before every doorway was a porch resting on fourteen pillars, elaborately carved, and about 14 feet high. The whole building stood upon a plinth or platform, rising about 10 feet from the ground, and projecting 10 or 12 feet beyond the porches, before each of which was a flight of ten steps. A frieze of elephants nearly 5 feet high, and carved in relief with singular correctness on slabs of yellow sandstone, was continued round the plinth. Only two of the elephants, however, remain in any perfection. Of another and probably older temple, on the north bank of the island, only the porch remains. The temple of Gaurí Somnáth appears to be an old shrine rebuilt with lime. Somnáth himself is a gigantic *linga*, now black, but once white, as his name denotes. The Muhammadan leader who destroyed old Mandháta, was told that this *linga* had the property of revealing to the inquirer the object into which his soul would pass at his next metempsychosis. He questioned it as to his own fate; when, mirrored upon the *linga*, the soldier of Islám beheld a pig. In his wrath he cast the *linga* into the fire, and since then it has assumed its jet-black hue. An immense Nandí (Siva's bull), of a fine green stone, lies headless in front of the shrine, and about 100 yards farther on is an overthrown pillar nearly 20 feet in length.

On the island itself, every temple belonged to Siva or his associate deities; but the north bank of the river opposite, in addition to Sivaite ruins, contains several old structures devoted to Vishnu, and a whole group of Jain temples. Just where the Narbadá bifurcates are the remains of some gateways, and a large shapeless building containing twenty-four figures of Vishnu and his various *avatárs*, carved in good style in a close-grained green stone. Among them is a large *varáha* or boar *avatár*, covered with the same panoply of sitting figures as that at Khandwá. The date 1346 A.D. appears on an image of Siva in the same building. Farther down the bank, in a small ravine called the Ráwana *nálá*, is found a prostrate figure 18½ feet in length, rudely carved in bold relief on four basalt slabs laid end to end. It has ten arms, all holding clubs and pendent skulls, but only one head. On its chest is a scorpion, and at its right side a rat, while one foot rests on a smaller prostrate human figure. The people call it Rávana, the demon who carried off Sítá, the wife of Ráma; but probably it represents the consort of Siva in her more terrible form of Mahákálí. It was evidently intended to be placed in a colossal temple which was never completed. The bed of the ravine is covered with huge basalt blocks, slightly carved

in some places, which doubtless had the same destination. Numbers of these stones have been removed to build the modern town of Mandháta, and the dry bed of the Narbadá has been strewn with them in the transit. The Jain temples stand on an elevation overlooking, but a little retired from, the river. The largest building, raised on a plinth of basalt blocks 5 feet high, was perhaps a monastery. It consisted of a quadrangle 53 feet by 43 feet, surrounded by four rows of pillars about 10 feet high. The eastern wall is still complete, decorated with geometrical figures rudely carved in yellow sandstone. The building was apparently devoid of external ornament. On each side of the doorway is a figure carved on slabs about 2 feet high, with Sivaite and Jain emblems curiously intermixed. To the north stood the temple proper, built in a pyramidal shape, with numerous smaller spires. The porch is still erect, but the shrine has been buried beneath the ruins of the dome. The third building was a smaller temple, 19 feet square, raised on a pyramid of basalt blocks about 25 feet high. The sitting figures over its doorways and the other carvings resemble those in the two larger buildings.

The hills near these temples, as well as the island of Mandháta itself, are covered with remains of habitations; but nowhere is there a trace of lime in the building. Probably this region was once thickly populated; at present only the Rájá's people and the temple officials occupy it. The great fair of Omkárjí, held on the 15th of Kártik (end of October), is attended by about 15,000 persons; and a good bridle-road of about 7 miles makes the place easily accessible from the Barwái travellers' bungalow. The southern bank has, during the present century, become the site of numerous temples and monasteries of Godar (whence its name of Godarpura) and other devotees, raised by the piety of various Marhattá chiefs. The *Bhavishya Purána* contains a prophecy that, after 5000 years of the Kálíyuga, the sanctity of the Gangá river will expire, and the Narbadá will be left without a rival. The Mandháta Bráhmans anxiously expect this important event, which a few years will now determine.

Mandi.—Native State, under the political superintendence of the Commissioner of Jálandhar, representing the Government of the Punjab, lying between 31° 23′ 45″ and 32° 4′ N. lat., and between 76° 40′ and 77° 22′ 30″ E. long.; bounded on the north and east by Kullu, on the south by Suket, and on the west by Kángra. Estimated area, 1200 square miles; estimated pop. (1876), 145,939; approximate revenue, £36,500. Tribute is paid to the British Government of £10,000.

Physical Aspects.—The country is very mountainous, being intersected by two parallel ranges, from which smaller hills and spurs diverge. The loftier of these two great ranges, known as the Goghar

Ka Dhar, attains a height of about 7000 feet; it is well wooded and fertile, and abounds in game. The second range, known as Sikandar Ka Dhar, rises at one point to a height of 6350 feet, but its average altitude is about 5000 feet.

History.—The ruling family in Mandi is Rájput, of the Chanda Bansi clan, and is known as Mandial. Sen is the name borne by the ruling Chief, whilst the younger members of the family are called Sinh. It is an ancient offshoot of the ruling house of Suket. About the year 1200 A.D., Bahu Sen, a younger brother of the Chief of Suket, having quarrelled with his elder brother, left Suket to seek his fortunes elsewhere. He went to Kullu, and settled at Manglan, where his posterity lived for eleven generations. Bano, who was so called from the accident of his having been born under a *bán* tree whilst his mother was a fugitive, succeeded in killing the Ráná of Sakor, and ruled for some years at Sakor. Thence he transferred his residence to Bhin, about four miles above Mandi, on the Biás. Finally, Rájá Ajbar Sen, nineteenth in descent from Bahu Sen, founded the town of Mandi in 1527 A.D., and may be considered the first Rájá of Mandi. Between this chieftaincy and that of Suket there were numerous wars, and incessant rivalry. Towards the end of the seventeenth century, Guru Govind Sinh, the tenth of the Síkh Gurus, visited Mandi, being miraculously conveyed thither, according to the Síkh legend, in a flying iron cage, in which he had been imprisoned by the Rájá of Kullu. During the rule of Rájá Isri Sen, 1779-1826 A.D., Mandi was successively under the power of the Katoch Rájá, of the Gúrkhas, and finally of Ranjít Sinh of Lahore. Tribute was regularly paid to Lahore, until, in the year 1840, the State was taken possession of by General Ventura for the Síkh Mahárájá of Lahore, Kharrak Sinh. The famous fortress of Kamlagarh was at this time reduced by the Síkh forces after an arduous siege. The Rájá was compelled to submit to the most extortionate demands of the Lahore authorities, and naturally looked for protection to the British power. After the battle of Sobráon, he formally tendered his allegiance to the British Government. The State came into possession of Government by the Treaty of Lahore in 1846; and the sovereignty was conferred on the father of the present Rájá under certain conditions, of which the chief were that he should construct good roads in his territory, and should levy no tolls on exports or imports.

Products, Climate, Administration, etc.—The valleys between the hill-ranges are very fertile, and produce all the ordinary grains, besides more valuable crops of rice, sugar-cane, maize, poppy, and tobacco. The climate is cool, except at the capital, which is shut in by the hills, and in the western portion of the country, which does not rise more than 2000 feet above the plains. There are salt-mines at Gumah and

Dirang, where the mineral is dug from the face of the cliff or from shallow open cuttings. The salt produced here furnishes about one-third of the revenue of the State, nearly half the total revenue being derived from the land-tax. Iron is also found in places, but generally only in small particles. Gold is also obtained in small quantities by washing. The present Rájá, named Bijái Sen, was born about 1847. The military force consists of 1700 infantry and 25 cavalry. The Rájá is entitled to a salute of 11 guns. Considerable sums have been expended of late years by this State on some important public works. Of these the chief are a post-office and a schoolhouse at Mandi, a good mule-road over the Babba Pass from Raijnáth to Sultánpur; and the most notable of all, a handsome suspension bridge over the Biás at Mandi, of 240 feet clear span. This bridge is most valuable both for convenience and for trade; it was opened by the Rájá in 1878, and christened by him 'The Empress Bridge of Mandi.'

Mandi.—Chief town of the Native State of that name, situated in 31° 43′ N. lat., and 76° 58′ E. long., on the banks of the Biás. The river here is a swift torrent, and is spanned by the new 'Empress' bridge. The banks are high and rocky. M. Lepel Griffin (*Punjab Rájás*, 1870, p. 626) says, 'The effect of the melting of the snow in the neighbouring mountains is seen each day in the river, which during the hot season rises every evening, continues to increase in volume during the night, and declines again towards morning, when the amount of water in its bed is perhaps one-third less than at midnight.' Elevation of Mandi above the sea, 2557 feet.

Mandiáon.—Town in Lucknow District, Oudh; situated a short distance north of Lucknow city, on the road to Sítápur. The site of the old Lucknow cantonments previous to the outbreak of the Mutiny in 1857, built by Saádat Alí Khán, 6th Nawáb of Oudh, in whose time three regiments of the Company's troops were stationed here. The buildings have now disappeared, with the exception of a gateway or two, and the gable end of the church, which stands out among the growing crops. Mandiáon is at present a place of no importance. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 2424; Muhammadans, 731; total, 3155, residing in 754 houses, mostly of mud. The town is said to derive its name from an ancient Hindu hermit, Mandal Rikh, who here performed his solitary devotions in the midst of a large forest. The Bhars afterwards effected a settlement, but were eventually driven out by Málik Adam, one of Sayyid Sálár's lieutenants, in whose honour an annual festival is held. A colony of Shaikhs, the relic of the invasion, is said to have lived here, and held the village for 150 years, when they were exterminated by Rájá Sinh, one of the Rakselá Chauháns of Bhaulí. This leader conferred the lands half on Bráhmans and half on Káyasths, servants of his own; whose descendants hold shares in the village at the present day.

Mandla.—A British District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 22° 14′ and 23° 22′ N. lat., and between 80° and 81° 48′ E. long. Bounded on the north-east by the State of Rewah, on the south-east by Biláspur, on the south-west by Bálághát, and on the west by Seoní and Jabalpur. Population in 1872, 213,018 persons; area, 4719 square miles. The administrative headquarters of the District are at the town of MANDLA.

Physical Aspects.—Mandla consists of a wild highland region, broken up by the valleys of numerous rivers. The traveller makes his way across a succession of inhospitable steppes, along narrow footpaths, bordered on either side with jungle and long grass, the haunt of tigers; yet at times a glimpse is caught of the head of some valley, where the hills seem to open out into a rolling prairie, diversified here and there with belts of forest, or perhaps a patch of cultivated ground intersected by a river, with a fringe of green trees on its banks. Trap covers the whole of the area, except in the south-west, where a formation of crystalline rocks occupies a small tract. To the south-east, though granite, syenite, and limestone frequently appear on the banks of streams, and form the sides of hills, yet almost everywhere, even to the tops of the highest peaks, trap is the uppermost rock. In the lowlands there is abundance of rich black cotton-soil; patches of which are surrounded, as the land rises towards the hills, with a red gravelly earth, usually covered with masses of stones and flints. In the less favoured valleys, a light friable sandy soil is found, which bears the name of *sehar.* The Narbadá (Nerbudda) river, after forming for some distance the boundary between Mandla and Rewah, bends to the west, and flows through the centre of the District. At the beginning of its course it receives the waters of many tributaries, which take their rise in the Máikal heights, and flow northward along valleys hemmed in by low spurs of hills jutting out from the main range, and chiefly covered with *sál* forests. Many of these rivers never run dry; and, with the natural springs which abound, they afford an ample supply of water to the eastern portion of the District. As the Narbadá rolls on towards the west, its waters are increased by those of the Banjár, the Hálon, and numerous other streams. Most of these rivers flow at a great depth below the general level, and can rarely be utilized for irrigation. In their valleys to the east and south of the town of Mandla, all the best cultivation of the District is comprised. The richest are the Harwelí lands, formed by irregular spurs, projecting northward from the Bhainsá Ghát towards the Narbadá, and watered by the Banjar, an affluent of the Narbadá, and by the Thánwar, which falls into the Wainganga. Between these streams stretches a range of low hills, crowned by an extensive plateau, where some of the best Gond villages lie, each within its fringe of jungle. To the west of Mandla town the country becomes

still more wild and difficult; though at places it opens into valleys, down which, after the rains, the mountain torrents force their way to the Narbadá. The spurs and ridges which occupy the greater part of the District, for the most part have the same character. An abrupt ascent leads to a fine plateau, with a general slope to the east. The Máikal range, almost entirely of laterite formation, and densely clothed with *sál* forests, forms part of the great watershed between Eastern and Western India. Its wildest section is in Sháhpur, north of the Narbadá, where the hills reach to a great height, rising precipitously from the valley of the Johilá, which flows in a deep bed below. From these heights the Ganjár and the Ganjári descend by a series of falls from one plateau to another, till they mingle with the Johila. The highest cascade is about 60 feet; and behind it are some vast caverns of unknown extent, which are carefully avoided by the Gonds who dwell amid the jungle, as being the homes, not only of wild beasts, but of evil spirits, who have tenanted them ever since the time of the Pandavas. All these hills are deemed to be under the special protection of Mahádeva. The loftiest mountain of the Máikal range is Chaurádádar, which is computed to be 3400 feet above sea level. On its summit an open plateau extends for 6 square miles, so abundantly supplied with water, and so well adapted to catch every cooling breeze, that, were it not for its inaccessibility, it would be admirably suited for a sanitarium. Amid the wild and desolate country which covers so large a part of the District, tigers and other wild beasts abound; and though their ravages have been greatly exaggerated, the proportion of deaths from wild beasts is considerably greater in Mandla than in any other District of the Central Provinces.

History.—The names of the dynasty under which Mandla became known as the chief seat of the Gond kingdom, were found engraved in Sanskrit on a stone in the temple at Rámnagar. The list begins with Jádhava Ráya, who, influenced by a dream and the advice of a holy Bráhman, entered the service of the Gond Rájá Nágdeva. Nágdeva gave him his only child in marriage, and, in obedience to a sign from heaven, named his son-in-law as his successor. On ascending the throne, the Rájput Jadhava Ráya made the Bráhman, Sarbhí Páthak, his prime minister; and while the descendants of the one reigned from 358 A.D. down to the Ságar conquest in 1781 A.D., the descendants of the other discharged the duties of prime minister for the same long period. It was not, however, till 634 A.D. that Mandla itself was added to the dominions of the Gondwána princes by Gopál Sá, tenth of his line. After his reign the whole kingdom became known as Garhá Mandla. From Gopál Sá a succession of 38 princes brings us down to Sangrám Sá, under whom the Garhá-Mandla dynasty attained its maximum of power. Before his death in 1530, he had

made himself master of 52 *garhs* or provinces, comprising the present Districts of Mandla, Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), Damoh, Ságar (Saugor), Narsinghpur, Seoní, and part of Hoshangábád, together with the principality of Bhopál. In 1564, Asaf Khán, the imperial viceroy at Kara Mánikpur on the Ganges, invaded the Gondwána kingdom at the head of a considerable force. At that time the country was under the regency of the widow of Dalpat Sá, the beneficent Rání Durgávati, whose name yet lives in the grateful recollection of the people. After sustaining a defeat near Singaurgarh, in Jabalpur District, she retired upon Garhá, and finally upon Mandla, where she took up a strong position in a narrow defile. The first day the queen was victorious; but the next day Asaf Khán brought up his artillery, and renewed the battle. The queen, however, though severely wounded, still defended the pass in person, when suddenly the river in her rear, which before the action was nearly dry, began to rise. The Gondwána troops, finding their retreat cut off, gave way in confusion. Then Rání Durgávati snatched a dagger from her elephant-driver and plunged it into her bosom, thus crowning a useful life with a heroic death. By this victory, Asaf Khán acquired immense booty, including a thousand elephants. Soon after his departure, the kingdom suffered its first diminution in the loss of ten provinces, afterwards formed into the State of Bhopál, which were ceded to the Emperor Akbar, to obtain his recognition of the succession of Chandra Sá. From this time, the Garhá-Mandla princes admitted the supremacy of the imperial power. The Bundelá invasion, two generations later, and the contests and foreign interventions, caused by a series of disputed successions, gradually stripped the Gondwána kingdom of territory, so that when Maháráj Sá succeeded in 1731, only 29 of the 42 provinces remained. Mandla itself, however, had progressed during this period, especially in the reign of Hírde Sá, under whom large numbers of Lodhís settled in the District; and much of its land was brought under cultivation. In 1742, the Peshwá invaded the country, and, after defeating and killing Maháráj Sá, placed the dead king's son, Seo Ráj Sá, on the throne, on condition of paying *chauth* or tribute of one-fourth, estimated at 4 *lákhs* of rupees (say £40,000). This invasion laid waste the whole country east of Jabalpur, and Mandla has never recovered from its effects. Further cessions of territory to the Rájá of Nágpur and to the Peshwá followed; until the Gond kingdom lay at the mercy of the Marhattá rulers of Ságar, who represented the Peshwá's authority. At length, in 1781, the last of a line which had ruled for over fourteen centuries was deposed, and his territories added to the Ságar principality. The country was ruled from Ságar for 18 years, but only one of the Ságar chiefs, Vásudeva Pandit, has left any mark on the District. He is said to have done

more in a few months towards the ruin of Mandla than internal dissensions or Pindárí raids could have effected in as many years. In 1799, Mandla was annexed by the Bhonslá Rájás of Nágpur, and during the following years the town of Mandla was fortified against the Pindárís, who never succeeded in taking it, though they freely pillaged the rest of the country. In 1818, Mandla was transferred to the British. The Marhattá garrison in the fort, however, refused to surrender; and it was necessary for General Marshall to take the place by assault on the 24th March 1818. A severe famine marked the first year of British rule, together with the first outbreak of cholera ever known in the country. At the time of the Sepoy mutiny in 1857, the chiefs of Rámgarh, Sháhpur, and Sohágpur rebelled. When order was restored, Sohágpur was made over to the Rájá of Rewah, and the estates of Rámgarh and Sháhpur were confiscated. Some further attempts at insurrection in 1858 were easily suppressed, and the British administration firmly established in Mandla.

Population.—A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the population of the District at 202,549. The more careful Census of 1872 disclosed 213,018. The latest estimate of 1877 indicates a total of 223,883 persons. The Census of 1872 still remains, however, the only basis for a detailed examination of the people. It disclosed a population of 213,018 persons on an area of 4719 square miles, residing in 1595 villages or townships and in 44,913 houses; persons per square mile, 45·14; villages per square mile, 0·34; houses per square mile, 9·52; persons per village, 133·55; persons per house, 4·74. Classified according to sex—males, 110,473; females, 102,545. According to age, the male children in 1877 numbered 48,562, the female children, 42,061. Ethnical division (1877)—Europeans, 21; Eurasians, 3; aboriginal tribes, 133,201; Hindus, 80,924; Muhammadans, 2855; Buddhists and Jains, 152. The most numerous of the aboriginal tribes are the Gonds, 113,306 in 1872; the remainder consisting of Kols, Báigas, Bharias, etc. Among the Hindus, in 1872, Bráhmans numbered 4279; the mass of the Hindu population consisting of Ahírs or Gaulis, 16,334; Dhers or Mhars, 10,314; Dhimárs, Kurmís, Lodhís, Telís, and other cultivating or inferior castes. Native Christians (in 1877), 5. In no District of the Central Provinces do the aboriginal or hill tribes constitute so large a proportion of the population; and nowhere, except in the feudatory State of BASTAR, can the habits of the Gonds, with the Pradháns (who act as bards at their births, deaths, and marriages) and the Báigas (who unite the professions of priest and huntsman), be better studied. (*See* CENTRAL PROVINCES.) The increase in population between 1866 and 1877 must in a great degree be ascribed to immigration from the neighbouring Native States; but, with the exception of the Upper Godávari District, Mandla is still the

most thinly populated of the British Districts in the Central Provinces. The want of inhabitants is felt especially in the eastern portion of the District; though since 1842 much land has there been brought under cultivation by a colony of Máhto Telis. These industrious husbandmen, who were originally resident at Maihír, forsook their hereditary profession of oil-pressing, under the guidance of Ráhtor Telí, and devoted themselves to agriculture. Though occasionally turbulent, they prove excellent cultivators. The prevailing languages in the District are Hindí, Urdu, and Marhathí.

Division into Town and Country.—The only town in the District with more than 2000 inhabitants is MANDLA TOWN, with a pop. (1872) of 4936. There are 4 townships with from 1000 to 2000 inhabitants; townships from 200 to 1000 inhabitants, 247; villages of less than 200 inhabitants, 343. The only municipalities are—Mandla, with a population within municipal limits of 7014, and a total income during the year 1876-77 of £288, entirely derived from taxation (9½d. per head); and Bahmani, with a population within municipal limits of 2102, and an income during the same year of £46, entirely derived from taxation (5d. per head).

Agriculture.—Of the total area of 4719 square miles, only 624 are cultivated, and of the portion lying waste, 2462 square miles are returned as cultivable. Of the cultivated land, 1219 acres are irrigated, entirely by private enterprise. In 1877, 75,283 acres were devoted to the production of rice, and 79,602 to wheat; while other food grains occupied 225,317 acres. The cultivation of cotton has not increased in late years, in spite of the favourable character of the soil; and in 1877 was confined to 657 acres. Fibres and sugar-cane are produced in considerable quantities. The magnificent *sál* forests which formerly clothed the highlands of the District have suffered greatly from the *dáhya* system of cultivation practised by the hill tribes, who cut down and burn the wood on the hillsides, and sow their crops in the ashes. Of late years, however, measures have been taken to prevent further damage to the forests. Notwithstanding the fine pastures to be found in parts of the District, and especially in the Pratápgarh *táluk*, the number of cattle has seriously diminished between 1873 and 1877. The Census of 1872 showed a total of 1361 proprietors, of whom 114 were classed as 'inferior.' The tenants numbered 28,605, of whom 1188 had either absolute or occupancy rights, while 27,417 were tenants-at-will. In 1877, the average rates of rent per acre were as follows:—Land suited for rice, 2s.; for wheat or cotton, 2s. 6d.; for inferior grain, 9d.; for sugar-cane, 4s. The produce per acre averaged—rice, 500 lbs.; wheat, 420 lbs.; inferior grain, 306 lbs.; cotton, 44 lbs.; and sugar (*gur*), 480 lbs. The prices of produce per cwt. were returned as follows:—Rice, 3s. 8d.; wheat, 2s. 8d.; cotton, 12s. 3d.;

and raw sugar (*gur*), 10s. 11d. One shilling per diem was the average wage of a skilled labourer, that of an unskilled labourer was 3d.

Commerce and Trade.—No manufacture exists in the District beyond the ordinary weaving of cotton cloth; and in 1872, the total number of merchants and traders did not exceed 330. In many villages, *bázárs* or markets are held, but none of them has any real trade, either export or import. In the eastern portion of the District, the traffic in grain is entirely dependent on foreign traders, who travel through the country with large herds of pack-bullocks; and to a great extent command their own prices. Iron-ore abounds throughout the Máikal Hills. The most valuable metal is produced in the mines near Rámgarh. Those in Mowái, however, supply most of the neighbourhood with axe-heads, ploughshares, and the like. The backward state of Mandla must be mainly attributed to the want of means of communication. Conveyance by water is nowhere available; and in 1872, not a single made road of any kind existed in the District. At present, a road from Jabalpur to the town of Mandla is in course of construction, the total expenditure on which, down to the end of the year 1876-77, amounted to £19,031. When completed, this road will bring the District into direct communication with the Great Indian Peninsula Railway.

Administration.—In 1861, Mandla was formed into a separate District under the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with Assistants and *tahsíldárs.* Total revenue in 1868-69, £8914, of which the land revenue yielded £5651. Total revenue in 1876-77, £16,105, of which the land yielded £9324. Total cost of District officials and police in the latter year, £7021. Number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 4; magistrates, 6. Maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 61—average distance, 25 miles. Number of police, 287, costing £4276; being 1 policeman to about every 16 square miles and to every 712 inhabitants. The daily average number of convicts in prison in 1876 was 54·86, of whom only 0·65 were females. The total cost of the jails was £498. The number of Government or aided schools in the District in that year under Government inspection was 42, attended by 852 pupils. The last return shows some progress; since in 1872 only 284 children under 12 years, 2 of whom were females, and only 1038 persons above that age, 6 of whom were females, were returned as able to read and write, or under instruction.

Medical Aspects.—The climate throughout the District is exceedingly variable. The hottest time of the year is at the break of the monsoon in June, just before the rains begin, and in September, when they cease. The cold weather extends from October or November till the end of February or March. At the civil station in Mandla in 1872,

the average temperature in the shade at 2 P.M. was as follows:—May, 112·9 F.; July, 95·3; December, 81·8. During the monsoon, the rainfall is heavy, the annual average being from 56 to 60 inches. In 1872 it amounted to 61·7 inches, while in 1876 it was as low as 41·10 inches. Storms are frequent; and at times the hailstorms are so violent, that whole fields are swept of their crops as if they had been reaped. In March, the hailstones are sometimes as large as pigeons' eggs, and, when heaped together in a shady place, will often remain unmelted during the whole of two days. Mandla has, throughout its length and breadth, a very bad name for fever. The local type is unusually virulent, and does not yield easily to quinine. Strangers are peculiarly liable to it. Cholera visits the country occasionally, and small-pox carries off large numbers. Of late, however, vaccination has made considerable progress. In 1876, the ratio of deaths per 1000 of the population amounted to 30·14; the mean for the previous five years had been only 17·74. The latter figure appears inconsistent with the reputed unhealthiness of the District; but probably in so wild and unsettled a country, the returns are imperfect. In 1876, the charitable dispensaries at Mandla and Rámgarh afforded medical relief to a total of 3897 patients.

Mandla.—The south-western *tahsíl* or revenue Subdivision of Mandla District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 129,311 persons, residing in 909 townships or villages and in 26,552 houses; area, 2042 square miles.

Mandla.—Administrative headquarters and principal town of Mandla District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 22° 35′ 6″ N., and long. 80° 24′ E., 1770 feet above sea level, on the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river, which surrounds it on three sides. Pop. (1872), 4936. The town was made the seat of government in 1680, by Narendra Sá, the 57th Rájá of the Garhá-Mandla line, who constructed a fort by the river, within which he built a large palace. In 1739, Mandla was taken by the Peshwá, Bálájí Bájí Ráo, from whom the gate on the Jabalpur road, by which he entered, received its name (Fateh Darwáza). The Marhattás strengthened the open side of the town by a wall, with bastions and gates. In 1818, General Marshall took the town by storm. Thirty-seven temples, raised between 1680 and 1858, decorate the river bank. The only manufacture is of bell-metal vessels, made from an alloy of zinc and copper.

Mandladaí.—Hill in Seoní District, Central Provinces; 20 miles north-east of the town of Seoní. Height, 2500 feet above sea level.

Mandlána.—Town in Rohtak District, Punjab.—*See* MUNDLANA.

Mandlesar.—Town in Indore State, Central India; situated on the right bank of the Narbadá (Nerbudda), in lat. 22° 11′ N., and long. 75° 42′ E., on the route from Mhow (Mhau) to Asírgarh, 30 miles south of

the former and 83 miles north-west of the latter. Pop. (Thornton), about 2000. The Narbadá is at this point about 500 yards wide, and unfordable except in spring; even then it is only crossed with difficulty. There is a ferry. The town is surrounded by a mud wall, and has a small well-built masonry fort. Thornton says it was once a cantonment, and the residence of a British functionary, known as the 'Principal Assistant to the Resident at Indore.' This official had charge of the British tracts in Nimár, and of the possessions of Holkar under British management.

Mandogarh (*Mandu*).—Extensive deserted town in Dhar State, Central India, the ancient capital of the Muhammadan kingdom of Málwá; situated in lat. 22° 21′ N., and long. 75° 26′ E., 15 miles north of the right bank of the Narbadá (Nerbudda); distant from Mhow (Mhau) 26 miles south-west, from Indore 38 miles south-west. According to Malcolm, the town was founded in 313 A.D.; and the same writer says that the circuit of the ramparts is 37 miles. It is not probable, however, that the whole of this space was inhabited. Among the buildings of which ruins yet remain are—the Jamá Masjíd, or Great Mosque, less injured than any of the others; the marble Mausoleum of Hoshang Ghorí, King of Málwá, who raised the city to great splendour; and the palace of Baz Bahádur, another King of Málwá. These must at one time have been magnificent buildings, and are still, in their ruined state, very striking on account of their massive proportions. The fortifications were constructed by Hoshang Ghorí, who reigned in the beginning of the 15th century. In 1526, Mandogarh was taken by Bahádur Sháh, ruler of Guzerat, and annexed to his dominions, of which it remained part until their conquest by Akbar in 1570.—*See* MALWA.

Mandor.—Ruined town in Jodhpur State, Rájputána; situated in lat. 26° 21′ N., and long. 73° 5′ E. It was taken from a Purihar prince by Chanda, chief of the Rahtor Rájputs, in 1381 A.D., and was the capital of the Rahtor territory until 1459 A.D., when the seat of government was transferred to Jodhpur, 5 miles distant. The town is placed upon a commanding eminence, and was surrounded by a wall with massive bastions built of huge blocks of stone. Much of the material of the wall has been removed to build the new capital; but the ruins within the town are of great interest, comprising gigantic figures of the gods and heroes of Indian antiquity. There are also some Buddhist and Jain remains, and several modern buildings, conspicuous among which is the stone palace of Ajit Sinh (died 1724 A.D.), now uninhabited save by swarms of bats. Every Monday, a number of devotees come to Mandor from Jodhpur, to pay their devotions at the numerous shrines. The fixed population of the place is very small.

Mandot.—Fortified town in Firozpur (Ferozepore) District, Punjab,

and former capital of a Native State. Pop. (1868), 2568. Situated in lat. 30° 53′ N., and long. 74° 26′ E., on the open plain, about 2 miles south of the left bank of the Sutlej. The walls rise to a height of 50 feet, and have a rectangular form, with a round tower at each corner, and in the middle of each face. Anciently known as Muhammadot, it formed the centre of an *iláka*, which became depopulated during the Mughal period, and was occupied by the Dogars about 1750. Shortly afterwards, the Dogars made themselves independent, but were soon subjected by Sardár Subha Sinh, a Síkh chieftain. With the assistance of the Rái of Ráikot, they expelled the Síkhs; but the Rái made himself supreme at Mandot, and the Dogars then revolted with the aid of Nizám-ud-dín and Kutab-ud-dín of Kasúr. Ranjít Sinh deprived Kutab-ud-dín, the surviving brother, of his trans-Sutlej possessions, but gave him in lieu a *jágír* in Gugáira, and permitted him to retain Mandot. His son, Jamál-ud-dín, though opposed by his cousin, who laid claim to the principality, allied himself with the British during the war of 1845-46, and having rendered good service to our cause, received the title of Nawáb, with a confirmation in his existing possessions. At a later period, however, the Nawáb acted with great atrocity towards the Dogars, on account of their former opposition to his father and himself; and an inquiry having been demanded on their behalf, a series of most oppressive acts was proved. Government accordingly resolved to depose Jamál-ud-dín, and attach his territory to Firozpur District, assigning two-thirds of the revenue to the support of the family. The late Nawáb died in 1863; his brother still lives at Mandot, but his two sons usually reside at Lahore.

Mandrák.—Village in Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 1687. Lies on the Agra road, 7 miles south of Koil. Noticeable for the spirited defence of the Mandrák Indigo Factory, by Mr. Watson and 11 Europeans against 1000 Musalmán rebels on the 1st of July 1857.—*See* ALIGARH DISTRICT.

Mandu.—Extensive deserted town in Dhar State, Central India.—*See* MANDOGARH.

Mandu Mahál Sirgirá.—Small chiefship attached to Sambalpur District, Central Provinces. Pop. about 1000, entirely agricultural, residing in 4 villages; area, 6 square miles. Chief product, rice.

Mándvi.—Seaport in the State of Cutch (Kachchh), Bombay; situated in lat. 22° 50′ 30″ N., and long. 69° 31′ 45″ E., on the coast of the Gulf of Kutch, 36 miles south-west of Bhuj, the capital of the State. Pop. (1872), 35,988.—(For nautical information, see Taylor's *Sailing Directory*, part i. p. 341.)

Mándvi.—Chief town of the Mándvi Subdivision, Surat District, Bombay, lying in lat. 21° 18′ 20″ N., and long. 73° 22′ 30″ E. Pop. (1872), 4430; municipal income, £446. Post office and dispensary.

Mándwa.—Petty State in Rewá Kánta, Bombay. Area, 7 square miles; estimated revenue in 1875, £3560; tribute of £221 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda. The chief, Ráná Khoman Sinhjí, was born about 1845.

Mándwa.—Seaport in the Alíbagh Subdivision of Kolába District, Bombay. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1873-74—imports, £210; exports, £4120.

Mandya.—*Táluk* in Mysore District, Mysore. Area, 194 square miles, of which 76 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 89,673, of whom 87,936 are Hindus, 1633 Muhammadans, 69 Jains, and 35 Christians; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £5679, or 2s. 5d. per head. Sheep-breeding is extensively carried on.

Mandya. — Municipal village in Mysore District, Mysore, and headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name; 25 miles by road north-east of the town of Mysore. Lat. 12° 32′ 10″ N., long. 76° 55′ 50″ E.; pop. (1871), 3241; municipal revenue (1874-75), £45; rate of taxation, 3d. per head. According to local legend, while the country was yet primeval jungle, a *rishí* settled here, and the spot has ever since been sacred. It remained a *sarvamányan* village for Bráhmans, until Tipú Sultán withdrew the endowments.

Maner.—Municipal town in Patná District, Bengal; situated in lat. 25° 38′ 40″ N., and long. 84° 55′ 10″ E., a few miles below the junction of the Són with the Ganges. Pop. (1872), 5326; municipal income (1876-77), £148; rate of taxation, 6d. per head of population; police force, 13 men.

Manerang.—Mountain pass in Kashmír State, Punjab, over the Dámak Shu range of the Himálayas, which divides Kunáwar from Ladákh. Lat. 31° 56′ N., long. 78° 24′ E. The ascent from the Kunáwar side lies up the Dárbang river to its source amid the perpetual snows, 15,000 feet above the sea. The pass is open about four months of the year. Thornton states that no European, except Gerard, has ever visited the spot, which he describes as arduous and wild. Elevation of the crest of the pass, 18,612 feet above sea level.

Mangahpett (*Mangampet*).—Town in the territory of the Nizám, Haidarábád (Hyderabad), Deccan; situated in lat. 18° 13′ N., and long. 80° 35′ E., on the right bank of the Godávari river; distant from Haidarábád 150 miles north-east. Remarkable for a series of standing stones, over 20 feet in height, and arranged in circles. These pillars are cut out of sandstone, which is abundant in this part of the country. There is a small mud fort at Mangahpett.

Mangal.—One of the Hill States under the political superintendence of the Government of the Punjab, lying between 31° 18′ and 31° 22′ N. lat., and between 76° 55′ and 77° 1′ E. long. Estimated area, 12⅘ square miles; estimated pop. (1878), 800; revenue, £70; tribute

of £7 is paid to the British Government. The State was an ancient dependency of Kahlúr, but was declared independent on the expulsion of the Gúrkhas in 1815. The principal products are opium and grains. The Ráná, Jit Sinh, is a Rájput, and was born about 1830.

Mangalagiri.—Town in Kistna District, Madras; situated in lat. 16° 26′ N., and long. 80° 36′ E., about 8 miles south of Bezwáda. Pop. (1871), 3637; number of houses, 1089. Contains 2 famous shrines to Narasinha-swámí (Vishnu), one a two-storied rock-cut temple of great antiquity, the second of more modern date, with a fine *gopura*. Sub-magistrate's court and post office.

Mangaldái.—Subdivision in Darrang District, Assam, with headquarters at village of the same name. Area, 1320 square miles; pop. (1872), 168,240. It contains the 3 *thánás* or police circles of Mangaldái, Káriápára, and Chatgári.

Mangaldái.—Village in Darrang District, Assam; situated in lat. 26° 27′ N., and long. 92° 5′ E., near the north or right bank of the Brahmaputra, about 50 miles west from Tezpur. Pop. (1872), 585. As the headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name, Mangaldái has recently been greatly improved by the erection of masonry buildings, with roofs of tile or corrugated iron, in substitution for the old thatched wooden houses. It is an important centre of trade, where the river steamers stop to collect tea and to distribute piece-goods and salt.

Mangalkot.—Village in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 31′ 50″ N., long. 87° 56′ 30″ E.; pop. under 5000. Police station.

Mangalore [*Mangala*, 'Fortunate;' the native name is *Kandial;* the *Mangalúr*, *Manjarúr*, and *Mangaruth*, according to the Greek writer Cosmas (6th cent.), of Arab travellers; *Nitriæ Emp.*—Yule].—Chief town of South Kanara District, Madras. Lat. 12° 51′ 40″ N., long. 74° 52′ 36″ E.; pop. (1871), 29,667; number of houses, 5277. A seaport, municipality, and military station, with courts, church, custom-house, and military offices; post and telegraph station. The town, which in the 16th century had been three times sacked by the Portuguese, was, subsequent to 1640, a stronghold of the Ikeri or Bednúr Rájás. When that dynasty succumbed to Haidar Alí, Mangalore was occupied by the latter (1763), and became the headquarters of his new navy. In 1768, the English held Mangalore for a short time; and in 1783, the fort was gallantly defended by an English garrison against overwhelming odds, but, after a nine months' siege, was taken by Tipú. In 1799, Mangalore became British territory; and since that time it has only once been disturbed by the appearance of an enemy—namely, during the Coorg insurrection in 1837, when the rebels entered the town, burnt the Cutcherry, and then retired. The town is picturesque, clean, and prosperous. The native houses are laid out in good streets, and the European quarter is particularly pleasant. Like all the towns on the Malabar coast, Man-

galore is buried amid groves of cocoa-nut palms. Situated on the backwater formed by the convergent mouths of the Netrávati and Gurpur rivers, it has water on three sides of it. Large vessels cannot cross the bar into the harbour; but Arabian *dhonies* and country craft enter in considerable numbers. Mangalore clears and exports all the coffee of Coorg, and trades directly with Arabia and the Persian Gulf. In 1875, 3600 ships of 264,000 tons entered. The exports in that year were valued at £505,800, and the imports at £272,704. The lighthouse is merely a harbour light. The municipality has a revenue of £3000; incidence of taxation, about 2s. per head. The municipal Commissioners have done much towards improving the place, and have recently established a handsome market. There is a large native Roman Catholic population (much understated in the Census of 1871), with 2 European bishops, several churches, and a convent. The Basle Lutheran Mission has its headquarters here, and has done much good in teaching trades, etc. Good cloth is woven at their establishment; the making of roof-tiles, printing, and binding are also taught. The Provincial School, a fine building, is well attended. The garrison consists of one Native infantry regiment, about 700 strong.

Mangalsí. — *Parganá* in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; occupying the north-west corner of the District, between the Gogra and the Madha rivers, which respectively form its northern and southern boundaries. It is perhaps the most fertile and the best cultivated *parganá* in the District. It is well wooded, and the scenery, though as a rule monotonous and tame, is often pretty. In shape, the *parganá* is long and narrow. Near its western end, a broad belt of sandy soil runs nearly across the whole. This is, as might be expected, broadest towards the river; and the country there breaks into great swelling downs, which form an agreeable change in the prospect. Near the eastern end, a ravine, which debouches on the Gogra, cuts far back into the *parganá*, and its sides are for a considerable distance sandy and bleak. With these exceptions, the soil is generally of first-rate quality. Marshes are common, tanks abundant, and well-water is found near the surface. The *parganá* has recently received considerable additions of area from the neighbouring tracts of Pachhimráth and Rudaulí in Bára Bánki District. It now contains an area of 125 square miles, and a population (1869) of 98,452 persons, residing in 126 villages or 107 *mauzás*. Of these 107 *mauzás*, 67 are held under *tálukdárí*, 37 under *mufrád*, and 3 under rent-free tenures. Government land revenue demand, £10,047.

Mangalvedha.—Town in the Native State of Sángli, Bombay, lying in 17° 30′ 42″ N. lat., and 75° 29′ 19″ E. long. Pop. (1872), 9267.

Manglaur.—Town in Sahàranpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 47′ 11″ N., long. 77° 54′ 48″ E.; pop. (1872), 9202, consisting of 3049 Hindus and 6153 Muhammadans. Distant from Rúrkí (Roorkee)

6 miles south, from Sahâranpur 16 miles south-east. Founded, according to tradition, by Rájá Mangal Sain, a Rájput feudatory of Vikramáditya. Traces of an old fortress may still be noticed near the town. The Musalmán inhabitants consist chiefly of weavers, now much impoverished; some of the Hindu *zamíndárs* are wealthy. No trade; many shops out of repair. Brick-built houses, surrounded by mud huts, and imbedded among groves or luxuriant crops. The sanitary arrangements are very defective, and the people suffer much from ague, enlarged spleen, and other malarious diseases. The place was once celebrated for carpentry, but the best workmen died during the fever epidemic of 1868-69. Government has set on foot considerable local improvements. Police station, post office, school.

Mangor.—Fortified village in Gwalior State, Central India; situated in lat. 26° 6′ N., and long. 78° 6′ E., at the base of a high range of hills. The scene of an engagement, on the 29th December 1843, between the British under General Grey and the Marhattás. The latter were driven with great loss from all points of their position, and all their artillery and ammunition were captured. The British had 35 men killed and 182 wounded.

Mángrol (*Mangarol Bandar*, apparently the *Monoglossum* of Ptolemy).—Seaport town in Junágarh State, Káthiáwár, Bombay, lying in lat. 21° 8′ N., and long. 70° 14′ 30″ E., on the south-west coast, washed by the Arabian Sea. Pop. (1872), 15,341. The mosque here is the finest in Káthiáwár. A tablet in one part of the building records the date of its foundation, 1383 A.D. The town belongs to a petty Musalmán chief, styled Nawáb of Mángrol, who pays an annual tribute of £1100 to the Nawáb of Junágarh. The harbour is much exposed, being open to all but north-east and north-west winds, and will not admit more than three or four *kotiyehs* or native vessels at a time. Soundings regular, over a muddy bottom, but rocky from 1 to 1½ mile off shore.—(For further sailing directions, see TAYLOR's *India Directory*, part i. p. 356.)

Mángrol.—Town in Kotah State, Rájputána; situated in lat. 25° 17′ N., and long. 76° 35′ 15″ E., on the route from Kalpi to Kotah, 274 miles south-west of the former and 46 east of the latter. The scene of a battle, fought on the 21st September 1821, between the army of Kishen Sinh, the ruler of Kotah, and Zalím Sinh, the minister of the State, assisted by the British. Kishen Sinh was utterly defeated, and his brother, Prithvi Sinh, killed.

Mangrota.—Town in Derá Ghází Khán District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 4424. Situated on the Sangarh stream, 45 miles north of Derá Ghází Khán. Formerly headquarters of a *tahsíl*, but abandoned in favour of a more central situation at Sangarh. Contains a fort, held by a detachment of cavalry and infantry from Derá Ghází Khán.

Mangrúl Pír.—Town in Básim District, Berár. Lat. 20° 19′ N.,

long. 77° 24′ 20″ E.; pop. (1867), 5753. Chief town of a *parganá* of the same name. It owes its affix Pír, which distinguishes it from several other Mangrúls, to the *dargahs* or burial shrines of Badar-ud-dín Sáhib and Shunam Sáhib, said to be about 400 years old. The principal of these is enclosed by a substantial bastioned wall, and is well endowed. Old mosques and other buildings show that this was once a favourite Musalmán town, and its population still consists largely of Muhammadans.

Maniárí.—River in Biláspur District, Central Provinces. Rising in the Lormí Hills, it flows south and west past the towns of Lormí and Takhtpúr, forming the boundary between the Mungelí and Biláspur *parganás*, and, after a circuitous course of 70 miles, falls into the SEONATH (lat. 21° 53′ N., long. 82° 5′ E.) in the Tarengá *táluk*. Some of its reaches are utilized for irrigation.

Manierkhál.—Outpost in Cáchár District, Assam.—*See* MONIERKHAL.

Mánika Char.—Village in the extreme south of Goálpára District, Assam; on the left or east bank of the Brahmaputra, about 40 miles west of Turá station. It conducts a considerable trade by river, especially in exporting the produce of the Gáro Hills.

Mánikganj.—Subdivision of Dacca District, Bengal, lying between 23° 32′ and 24° 2′ N. lat., and between 89° 12′ and 90° 16′ E. long. Area, 525 square miles; townships, 1064; houses, 65,512. Pop. (1872), 386,046, of whom 156,151, or 40·5 per cent., were Hindus; 229,370, or 59·4 per cent., Muhammadans; 6 Christians; and 519 of other denominations. Proportion of males, 48·9 per cent.; persons per square mile, 735; villages per square mile, 203; persons per village, 363; houses per square mile, 125; persons per house, 5·8. This Subdivision comprises the 3 police circles (*thánás*) of Mánikganj, Jafarganj, and Harirámpur. In 1869, it contained one court, and maintained a regular police force of 68 men, and a municipal force of 40 men, and a village watch of 769; the separate cost of administration was returned at £3742, 11s. for the Subdivision, and £27, 16s. for the municipality of Mánikganj.

Mánikganj.—Headquarters of the Subdivision of same name in Dacca District, Bengal; situated on the west bank of the Dhaleswari river, in lat. 23° 52′ 45″ N., and long. 90° 4′ 15″ E. The *bázár* extends over an area of about 2 square miles; chief articles of trade—mustard-oil and tobacco. Fair held here, chiefly for religious purposes. Communication by boat, except in the dry season. Municipal revenue (1872), £363; rate of taxation, 7½d. per head of population, ascertained in that year to number 11,542 persons. Dispensary.

Mánikiála.—Village and group of ruins in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab, lying in lat. 33° 27′ 30″ N., and long. 73° 17′ 15″ E.,

about midway between Hasan Abdál and Jhelum (Jhílam). The remains consist of a great tope or *stupa* south of the modern village, together with 14 smaller buildings of the same class, 15 monasteries, and many isolated massive stone walls. Local tradition connects these ruins with the name of an eponymous Rájá, Mán or Mánik, who built the great *stupa*. According to the current legend, an ancient city named Mánikpur stood upon the site, inhabited by the seven Rakshasas or demons. Rasálu, son of Saliváhaná, Rájá of Siálkot, was the enemy of these demons, who daily devoured by lot one of the people of Mánikpur. Accordingly, Rasálu once took the place of the victim, went out to meet the demons, and slew them all save one, who still lives in the cavern of Gandgarh. This legend General Cunningham identifies as a Hinduized version of the Buddhist story, in which Sakya offers up his body to appease the hunger of seven tiger cubs. Hiouen Thsang places the scene of this legend 33⅗ miles south-east of Taxila or SHAHDERI, which is the exact distance and bearing of Mánikiála from the latter ruins. At this spot stood the famous *stupa* of the body-offering, one of the four great topes of North-Western India. The *stupa* was explored by General Court in 1834, and General Cunningham states that the inscription on it twice makes mention of the sacrifice of Buddha's body. All the existing remains present the appearance of religious buildings, without any trace of a city or fortress. The people point to the high ground immediately west of the great *stupa* as the site of Rájá Mán's palace, because pieces of plaster occur there only among the ruins; but the Satraps of Taxila may very probably have taken up their residence upon this spot when they came to worship at the famous shrine. A town of some 1500 or 2000 houses may also have extended northward, and occupied the whole rising ground now covered by the village of Mánikiála. But the place must be regarded as mainly an ancient religious centre, full of costly monasteries and shrines, with massive walls of cut stone. The people unanimously affirm that the city was destroyed by fire, and the quantity of charcoal and ashes found amongst the ruins strongly confirms their belief.

Mánikpur.—*Parganá* in Gonda District, Oudh; bounded on the north by *parganás* Gonda and Sadullánagar, on the east by Sadullánagar and Babhnipair, on the south by Nawábganj and Mahádewa, and on the west by Gonda. Area, 125 square miles, of which 46 per cent. is cultivated, 49 per cent. cultivable but not under tillage, and 5 per cent. uncultivable. Population (1869), after recent transfers, 41,656, of whom Bráhmans are the most numerous (9547); after them come Muráos (8134), Ahírs (4411), Kurmís (4343), Korís (4136), and Kshattriyas (2024). Total Government land revenue, £5147. Of the total number of 196 *mauzás*, 171 are held under *tálukdári*

tenure, 20 under *zamíndárí*, and 5 under *pattidárí*. The *parganá*, which is only intersected by one line of road, contains 7 small village schools. The tract comprising the present division was originally in the possession of Thárus. These were displaced by the Bhars, a chief of whom, called Makka, cleared the jungle and founded the village of Mánikpur. After ruling for six generations, the Bhars were in turn subdued by Newál Sáh, a Chandrabansi or Bandalghoti Rájput, whose family held it for twelve generations, till on the death of the last of the line without issue his mother adopted a nephew, her sister's husband, and the son of the Bisen Rájá of Gonda. The Bisen clan have held the *parganá* ever since, the present head of the family being Rání Sultánat Kunwár, whose estate comprises 159 villages, yielding a revenue of £2854. The little village of Mánikpur, the chief place in the *parganá*, contains only 547 inhabitants.

Mánikpur.—*Parganá* in Partábgarh District, Oudh. A small but fertile tract along the left or north bank of the Ganges, between Bihár and Salon *parganás*. Area, 36 square miles, or 22,796 acres, of which 10,300 acres, or rather less than one-half, are cultivated; pop. (1869), 50,849, at the rate of 1412 persons per square mile, or 5 per cultivated acre, being (with the exception of Lucknow *parganá*) the most densely populated *parganá* in Oudh. Of the total number of 120 villages, 48 are held under *tálukdárí* tenure, belonging to the Rámpur estate of Rájá Hanwant Sinh of the Bisen clan. The remaining 72 are held under *mufrád* tenure, and, with the exception of 8, are all in the hands of Musalmáns. Mánikpur and the surrounding country is rich in historical associations. The foundation of the place is variously ascribed to Mán Deo, a younger son of Rájá Bál Deo of Kanauj, and to Mánik Chánd, a younger brother of the celebrated Rájá Jái Chánd of Kanauj. Its population of Muhammadan Shaikhs claims to be descended from a settlement of Musalmáns at the time of Sayyid Sálár's invasion (1032-33). It became permanently a part of the Muhammadan conquests on the overthrow of the Kanauj dynasty in 1194; but for long, from its border situation, formed the scene of numerous struggles between the rival Muhammadan powers in this part of India. It was incorporated with the Delhi empire on the overthrow of the Jaunpur kingdom by Bahlol Lodi; but upon this monarch's division of his dominions at his death, the country was again given over to internecine strife, until Akbar finally established the Mughal sovereignty. At the time of his famous territorial distribution of his dominions, Mánikpur was included as one of the *sarkárs* or Districts of the Allahábád *subah* or Province. During the next three reigns, Mánikpur was at the height of its prosperity, being the residence and court of a succession of the highest nobles of the empire. It was visited by Aurangzeb when on a journey to Agra; and a mosque, still existing, is

pointed out as having been erected in the course of a single night, for the emperor to perform his morning devotions in. During the declining years of the Mughal power, Mánikpur suffered much. It was threatened by the Rohillás in 1751, and successfully overrun and plundered by the Marhattás in 1760-61. On the defeat of the Marhattás, and the establishment by Shujá-ud-daulá of his independence as Nawáb Wazír of Oudh in 1762, Mánikpur *sarkar* was incorporated with his dominions, and has since formed a part of the Province, although now split up into many smaller divisions or *parganás.*

Mánikpur.—Town in Partábgarh District, Oudh, and headquarters of Mánikpur *parganá;* situated on the north bank of the Ganges, 16 miles from Salon town, and 36 from both Partábgarh and Allahábád. Lat. 25° 46′ N., long. 81° 26′ E. The history of the town has been given in that of the *parganá* of the same name (*vide supra*). It is now merely a picturesque ruin of an ancient city situated amongst numerous groves, every garden containing some graceful and more or less decayed ruin, a mosque or a tomb. The stones of many of the ancient palaces have been carried away to form newer buildings, notably some magnificent carvings by Akbar's governor, Nawáb Abdul Samad Khán, which nearly two centuries afterwards were removed to Lucknow, where they now grace the large *imambára.* The present (1869) population of the town consists of 835 Muhammadans and 811 Hindus; total, 1646.

Mánikpur.—Village and railway station in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 3′ 30″ N., long. 81° 8′ 20″ E.; pop. (1872), 841. Distant from Allahábád 31 miles south-west; from Bánda 59 miles south-east. Situated on the Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) branch of the East Indian Railway, and the chief station in the District. Small market, which promises to increase into a considerable trading centre. Police station, post office, school.

Mani Majra.—Town in Ambála District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 6045, consisting of 4303 Hindus, 1679 Muhammadans, and 63 Síkhs. Situated in lat. 30° 42′ 48″ N., and long. 76° 53′ 48″ E., close to the foot of the hills, 23 miles due north of Ambála. Nothing is known of the town prior to the Síkh period. After the break-up of the Mughal empire about 1762, Gharíb Dás, a Síkh leader, seized upon 84 villages which his father had held as revenue officer under the Muhammadans, and fixed his capital at Mani Majra. He further extended his principality by occupying the fortress of Pinjor, which, however, was afterwards wrested from him by the Rájá of Pattiála. Gharíb Dás died in 1783; and his eldest son, Gopál Sinh, after doing excellent service for the British in 1809, and again during the Gúrkha campaign of 1814, received from our Government, at his own request, the title of Rájá, in lieu of other reward. He died in 1816. The present representative of the family, Rájá Bhagwán Sinh, still holds, in *jágír,* estates worth

£3000 a year. The shrine of Mansa Devi, near Mani Majra, attracts large numbers of worshippers, having been removed hither from Náhan State, through an opportune dream of the Rájá of Mani Majra, on the occasion of some hillmen cutting off the water supply of the original shrine. The Rájá was rewarded for his piety by realizing a considerable profit from the annual fair. Manufactures of bamboo articles and millstones. Small trade with the hills in country produce, ginger, and spices.

Manipur (the *Kasse* or *Kathé* of the Burmese).—Native State in North-eastern India, lying between 24° 35′ and 24° 48′ 30″ N. lat., and between 93° and 94° 40′ E. long. Its relations with the British Government are conducted through a Political Agent, who, in matters connected with Assam and its frontier, is under the control of the Chief Commissioner of Assam—in others, under that of the Government of India. Manipur is bounded on the north by the Angámi country, and the hills overlooking the valley of Assam; on the west, by the British District of Cáchár; on the east, by the Kubo valley and part of Upper Burma; on the south the boundary is undefined, and abuts on the country inhabited by the various tribes of Lusháis, Kukis, and Sutis. The State consists principally of an extensive valley, situated in the heart of the difficult and mountainous country which stretches between Assam, Cáchár, Burma, and Chittagong. The total area of the territory is estimated at upwards of 7600 square miles, that of the valley proper at about 650 square miles. But as the country has never been surveyed, these figures are only approximate. The population of the valley of Manipur, and of the surrounding hills, is estimated to be about 74,000 hillmen and 65,000 Manipuris, or about 139,000 persons.

Physical Aspects.—The hill ranges in Manipur generally run north and south, with occasional connecting spurs and ridges of lower elevation between. Their greatest altitude is attained in the north, about four days' journey from the Manipur valley, where hills are found upwards of 8000 feet above the level of the sea. From this point south, until the sea-coast is reached towards Chittagong and Arakan, there is a steady decrease in the height of the hill ranges; northwards, again, as far as the Assam valley, the same gradual decrease in height is noticeable. The general aspect of the hill ranges is that of irregular serrated ridges, occasionally rising into conical peaks and flattened cliffs of bare rock. Sometimes, as in the western range of hills overlooking the Manipur valley, the summit of the hills presents a more open and rolling character; and facing the valley is an extent of hill land comparatively flat and of considerable size. Looking down the valley, the object which first prominently presents itself is the Logták Lake, lying in front and to the right, with the low bare hills which skirt it reflected on its surface. To the south of the Logták Lake, as far as the boundary of

hills in that direction, the valley is almost entirely uncultivated, and covered with grass jungle, scarcely a tree being visible. To the north and east, villages are seen; and in the distance, to the north, in a corner under the hills, lies the capital, Manipur. Here the country is well wooded, and more populous than in any other part. Several rivers from the north and west enter the Logták Lake, from which one river emerges. This stream, uniting with others, flows from the valley to the south. The general shape of the valley is that of an irregular oval; its length is about 36 miles, and its greatest breadth about 20. The ground falls from the north, where the capital is situated, towards the Logták Lake, to the south and south-west of which it again rises. The conformation is that of a shallow saucer, the lowest part of which is the lake.

The universal prevalence of dense forests in the mountain ranges has restricted geological observations to those portions which have been laid bare by the action of torrents, or to some few of the more conspicuous peaks and ridges. In that portion of the tract which extends between Manipur and Cáchár, a light and friable sandstone, of a brown colour, and a red ferruginous clay are found to prevail on the lower heights. On reaching the more lofty elevations, these are succeeded by slate of so soft and friable a nature as in many instances to be little more than an indurated clay; it is distinctly stratified in very thin layers, which generally dip slightly to the southward. Petrifactions of the different species of woods growing on the borders of the *nálás* are very numerous. Among the central ranges west of Manipur, limestone has been found. The rocks on the hills between Manipur and the Kubo valley are, on the Manipur side, composed of different varieties of sandstone and slate, more or less compact in structure; on the Kubo side, hornblende and ironstone are found, with large quantities of fuller's earth, which are dug from the ground not far from Moreh at the extreme south-east of the valley. North of Manipur, the rocks become more solid and compact, and the great central ridge, where the Gramei tribe dwells, is composed of hard grey granular slate, having about its base boulders of granite. That coal of an inferior quality exists in the hills to the north-east of the Manipur valley is apparently certain, but the nature of the deposits is unknown. Iron, the only metal yet ascertained to exist in Manipur, is obtained principally from the beds of small streams south of Thobal and the hills near Langatel; it has also been found underneath the hills to the north, at a place called Kameng. Nearly the whole of the salt consumed by the Manipuris is obtained from salt wells situated in the valley, the chief of these being at the foot of the hills to the north-east, about 14 miles from the capital. The only important lake in the State is the Logták. This irregular sheet of water is of considerable size, but is yearly growing smaller.

The general opinion of observers as to the formation of the Manipur valley is, that in former ages it consisted of a large lake basin, which has gradually contracted in size, until what remains of it is seen in the Logták. Other sheets of water exist in various parts of the valley, chiefly towards its northern extremity; but in no case, the Logták excepted, does any large stream drain into them. The chief rivers are the Jiri, the Mukru, the Barák, the Erung, the Lengba, and the Limatak. The Jiri forms the boundary between British territory and Manipur, and is about 40 yards wide where it is crossed by the Government road; it is fordable in dry weather, and crossed by a ferry during the rains. The Mukru runs nearly parallel with the Jiri; it has a very clear stream, with a rapid current, in the rains; during the dry season, it becomes fordable. The BARAK is the largest and most important river in the Manipur Hill territory; it receives the Mukru, the Erung, the Tipái river, which flows north from the Lushái country, and finally the Jiri. It is said to be navigable for canoes for about one day above its junction with the Tipái. In dry weather the Barák is fordable, with the water thigh-deep. Almost all the rivers of Manipur are well stocked with fish, chiefly *mahsír*.

The whole of the hill ranges lying between the valleys of Cáchár and Manipur, and far to the north and south, are densely clothed to their summits with tree jungle. Almost the only exceptions to this are the hill slopes facing the Manipur valley, which have been denuded of their timber. The forest trees are of great variety; and in the ranges lying west of the Manipur valley, there are large forest tracts, comprising *nágeswar*, *jarul*, india-rubber, *tun*, oak, ash, etc. Fir-trees do not seem to exist in the hills immediately adjoining the Government road; they are, however, found in the Hirok range, and are common in the south. Bamboo jungle is everywhere plentiful. Towards the north, in the valleys dividing the hill ranges from one another, the forest trees attain immense sizes and heights; and where this kind of forest exists, the bamboo is uncommon. The tea plant is found wild in the Hirok range between Manipur and Burma, also on the hills to the north. Teak is common on the slope overlooking the Kubo valley. The only parts of the immense tracts of forest which are utilized, are those on the Jiri, and the hill slopes lying nearest to the capital. In the valley, but few wild animals are found; in the hill territory, however, elephants exist in large herds, and the tiger, leopard, wild cat, and bear are found. Of deer, there is a variety of *sámbhar* (Rusa aristotelis) said to be peculiar to Manipur, the ravine deer, barking deer (Arvulus aureus), and a small red deer. The rhinoceros is found only in the hills to the east and south; the wild buffalo only in the south of the valley. The *metna* (Bos frontalis) or hill cow in a wild state is now rare, and is

found in the south only; it is peculiar to the hills bordering on the north-east frontier of India, and in shape resembles the buffalo, the horns being short, however, like those of the cow, and thick at the base. The wild goat is rare, the wild pig common. Flying lemurs are said to be not uncommon. There are two species of otters. The *huluk* monkey is found everywhere, and the *langúr* in the north. There are the usual varieties of game and other birds; black eagles have been seen, it is said, on the highest peaks. Manipur appears to be singularly free from poisonous snakes. The cobra does not seem to exist in the valley, but the boa-constrictor is found in the dense forests to the south, and is said frequently to attain a large size.

History.—The origin of the people is obscure; and the written records, having been mainly composed since they became Hindus, are not worthy of much credit. From the most creditable traditions, the valley appears originally to have been occupied by several tribes, which came from different directions. Although the general facial characteristics of the Manipuris are Mongolian, there is great diversity of feature amongst them, some of them showing a regularity approaching the Aryan type. Their history contains nothing of special interest until about the year 1714 A.D. In that year, Gharíb Nawáz succeeded to power. He made several successful invasions into Burma, but no permanent conquest. After his death, the Burmese invaded Manipur; and the ruler, Jái Sinh, having sought the aid of the British, a treaty of alliance was negotiated in 1762. The force sent to assist Manipur was, however, recalled; and after this, little communication passed between the British Government and the State for some years. On the outbreak of the first Burmese war in 1824, the Burmese invaded Cáchár and Assam, as well as Manipur; and Gambhir Sinh of Manipur asked for British aid, which was granted. A force of Sepoys and artillery being sent towards Cáchár, and a levy of Manipuris being formed under British officers, the Burmese were expelled from the valley. In 1826, peace was concluded with Burma, and Manipur was declared independent. Until 1834, when Gambhir Sinh died, the country remained quiet and prosperous. On his death, the present Rájá, son of Gambhir Sinh, being at the time only one year old, Nar Sinh, uncle of the Rájá, was appointed regent. An unsuccessful attempt was made on Nar Sinh's life in 1844, and the Rájá's mother, being implicated, fled with her son to Cáchár. Nar Sinh upon this assumed the Ráj, which he retained until his death in 1850. In 1835, a Political Agent was appointed to act as a medium of communication between the State and the British Government. On Nar Sinh's death, Debendra Sinh, his brother, was recognised as Rájá by the British Government. Three months afterwards, Chandra Kirti Sinh, the present ruler, invaded Manipur; and Debendra Sinh, who was unpopular, fled towards Cáchár.

Chandra Kirti Sinh, having established his authority, was subsequently recognised by the British Government.

The people of the Manipur valley are chiefly Hindus, their religion being of apparently recent introduction. They have a caste system which differs from that of Bengal in some respects, and seems to be chiefly founded on what is known as the system of *lallúp* or forced labour. This is based on the assumption that it is the duty of every male between the ages of seventeen and sixty to place his services at the disposal of the State for a certain number of days in each year. To different classes of people, different employments are assigned; thus there are four great divisions—Laiphun, Kaphum, Ahullúp, and Niharúp, which are again subdivided. There is a considerable Musalmán population, for the most part descendants of settlers from Bengal; they number about 400 families, and reside chiefly to the east of the capital. The hillmen who inhabit the mountainous tract of country under Manipur rule, although amongst themselves divided into innumerable clans and sections, with slight differences in language, customs, or modes of dress, may be considered generally under the two great divisions of Nágá and Kuki. Although no sharp boundary can be drawn between the tracts of country occupied by these two races, it may be said that the Nágás are principally found to the north, and the Kukis to the south, of a line running east from Cáchár to the Manipur valley in about 24° 70′ N. lat., or about a day's journey south of the Government road from Cáchár. There are several well-marked distinctions between the races. The Nágás wear their hair cut in various ways, sometimes very short; the Kukis, on the other hand (with one exception, the Chiru clan), wear their locks long, and tucked in behind. The Nágá wears no *pagri* or head-covering on ordinary occasions; the Kuki (again excepting the Chirus) always does. The ear ornaments of the Nágá are various; the Kuki generally confines himself to a single red pebble bead, suspended from the lobe by a string or two large discs of perforated silver with a broad flange, by which the holes in the ears are often enormously distended. This ornament is entirely confined to the Kukis, and is never seen among any of the Nágá tribes. The Maring Nágás, a race differing essentially from the Nágás to the north, in their facial and other characteristics, are distinguished by wearing the hair long, and confined in a bunch like a horn, rising from the front of the head. The purely Mongolian caste of features is rare among these hill tribes, although the peculiar oblique eye is perhaps the most persistent characteristic, being found in the Manipuris as well as the hillmen. Amongst both Nágás and Kukis the stature varies considerably, the Nágás being generally the taller of the two. The languages of these two races are entirely different; and among the hillmen in Manipur territory, or on its borders, there are said to be upwards

of twenty different dialects. The hill tribes all recognise one supreme being of a benevolent nature, and numerous inferior deities and evil spirits inhabiting the inaccessible heights. They all seem also to believe in a future state, though their ideas on the subject vary greatly. Marriage is entered upon by both sexes after they have arrived at maturity, and as a matter of inclination on both sides, as a rule. Adultery is considered a very heinous offence, and is punished with death to the male offender, the woman escaping without punishment. Polygamy is practised, but rarely; polyandry is quite unknown. In the hills, *júm* cultivation is common. The rice crop, which forms the staple food of the population, is ready for cutting about September. The crop, having been cut, is beaten out on the field, and the grain deposited in the granary close by the village. In the carrying, the whole village joins, receiving as recompense a certain portion of the load carried, and their drink. The crops raised in the hill territory comprise rice, cotton, oil-seeds, pepper, tobacco, ginger, vegetables of various kinds, sweet potatoes of a very superior quality, Indian corn, etc. In the valley, no fewer than nineteen varieties of rice are grown; these may be divided into early crops, cut about September, and late crops, cut in November. Several kinds of *dál* (Cajanus indicus) are grown, as well as English and other vegetables. Wheat is grown in the cold season in small quantity, and thrives very well. Plantains, pine-apples, and mangoes are cultivated; and plums, peaches, and apples are also grown, but of inferior quality. Throughout the valley and neighbouring hills, the bramble and wild raspberry are common. English fruit-trees have been lately introduced, with a view to their acclimatization. Dogs are seldom kept, being looked upon as unclean; but they are eaten as a delicacy by some of the Nágá tribes in the hills. The breed of ponies is similar to that of Burma; they are generally small, under 12 hands high, but strong and hardy. The game of hockey on horseback was formerly almost peculiar to Manipur, but has now become popular in India and England under the name of polo. In Manipur, seven players on each side are the number usual in an important match. In some of these matches, particularly those which follow the yearly boat races in September, great interest is taken, and the scoring is carried on from year to year. In the first day's game, a male member of the royal family usually heads either side. A good polo pony is very valuable, but it is thought that the ponies are deteriorating from want of care in breeding. The land system starts from the assumption that all the land belongs to the Rájá, and is his to give away or retain as he pleases. The head-man of each village looks after the cultivation, and is responsible for the realization of the tax payable in kind by each cultivator; he holds no interest in the land, and is merely an agent of the Rájá. The mode of cultivation differs little

from that of Eastern Bengal. The soil throughout the valley is nearly all of excellent quality, and of great depth. It is a blackish loam near the hills; but on the hills themselves it is reddish, and of inferior quality.

Communications.—The chief road is that leading from Manipur to the District of Cáchár, which was constructed by the British Government after the first Burmese war between 1832 and 1842, and was kept in repair by it until 1865, when, by mutual arrangement, the maintenance was undertaken by the Manipur Rájá. It has been recently repaired, and is said to be in good condition, and in a fit state for pack-bullocks in the cold weather. Another trade route leads into Cáchár to the north of the Government road, known as the Aquí route; it is still used, though not frequently, by the hill people. The valley is well supplied with tolerable roads, which, though not metalled, are quite fit for the traffic of the country. The chief difficulty in road-making is the bridging of streams, for which the rough and ready methods of the Manipuris are good in ordinary weather, but the bridges generally require repair yearly after floods.

Commerce.—The trade is small in amount, owing chiefly to the want of means of transport for goods; none of the roads are fitted for carts, and could not be so made except at great expense. The chief imports from Cáchár consist of betel-nuts, calicoes, broadcloths, brass vessels, hookahs, spices, tools and implements, and various small articles of luxury. The principal exports are ponies, cloth, silk, hockey sticks, bees-wax, tea seed, ivory, and india-rubber. A small trade is carried on with the Nágá Hills, in which ponies, iron, spirit salt, and cloth are exported, and brass vessels and cornelians are imported. Bees-wax, oil-seed, cotton, and cloths are also brought in by different tribes. The trade with Burma, on account of the unsatisfactory condition of frontier affairs, has of late years been very small.

Administration.—Apart from payments in kind, the money revenue of the State, including the compensation of £637 per annum, paid by the British Government for the surrender to the Burmese of the Kubo valley, is estimated at from £2000 to £3000 annually from all sources. Manipur pays no tribute to the British Government.

The only coin peculiar to the country is of bell-metal, and small in size, weighing about 16 grains. This is coined by the Rájá as required. The British and Burmese rupee, both representing the same value, circulate freely; also the smaller silver coins.

There are two chief courts of justice, the Chirap and the Military Court. The Chirap consists of 13 senior members, all of whom are appointed by the Rájá. The military court consists of the 8 senior officers of the army, named majors, and other officers. In this court, all cases in which sepoys are concerned are heard. There is also a court called Paja, or women's court, in which all cases of family dis-

pute in which women are concerned, wife-beating, adultery, etc., are in the first instance heard; serious cases may afterwards come before the Chirap. There are also minor courts for cattle disputes, etc. Species of village clubs under the head of the village adjudicate in minor cases; and in the event of a villager falling into extreme poverty, they supply him with food; in sickness, they look after him; and in the case of his death, provide wood, etc. for his cremation. In this way, although many of the inhabitants are very poor, actual starvation or fatal neglect is rendered impossible. The jail is situated within the Rájá's enclosure, and is calculated to contain 100 prisoners, who are freely employed on the roads, etc. outside. The punishments most in vogue, especially in cases of assault and theft, consist of flogging and exposure in the *bázár*.

The military force of Manipur consists of a species of militia, who are liable to be called out for service when required. Their numbers are put at 4400 infantry, 500 artillery, and 400 cavalry. The Manipur troops, when formed into a levy under British officers in 1825, and the following years, did good service against the Burmese; but they have now fallen into a state of inefficiency.

A school was established in Manipur, at the suggestion of the Political Agent, a few years ago; but for want of encouragement on the part of the authorities, it has been nearly closed. Some of the highest officials can neither read nor write. The Manipuris possess a written character of their own, which seems to be a modification of the Nágari; but of late years, the Bengáli character has been much used.

Medical Aspects.—The Manipur valley, being 2500 feet above the sea, enjoys a temperate climate. The following is the average monthly temperature at 3 P.M. throughout the year 1868-69:—January, 64° F.; February, 75°; March, 76°; April, 80°; May, 79°; June, 83°; July, 81°; August, 82°; September, 81°; October, 78°; November, 71°; December, 65° F. At the hottest season, the nights and mornings are always cool. In the cold weather, fogs are common in the valley. Hoar-frost is usual, but ice does not form on the pools. The rainfall in the valley was 36·74 inches in 1872-73, when there was a general complaint of superabundance; but in 1876-77, the registered rainfall was 46·24 inches, and in 1877-78, 54·30 inches. In no case, however, is it considered that the returns are quite trustworthy. The prevailing wind is from the south-west, and blows with remarkable steadiness, seldom varying all the year round. The valley has been occasionally subject to slight earthquakes, but, except in 1869, there has been no serious convulsion of this kind as far as is known.

Manjadikara.—Trading town in Travancore State, Madras; situated in lat. 9° 26′ N., and long. 76° 35′ E., between Madura and Kotáyam. Pop. (1871), 6572; number of houses, 1293.

Manjarábád (*'Abode of Fog'*).—*Táluk* in Hassan District, Mysore State, with headquarters at Sakleshpur. Area, 412 square miles, of which 82 are cultivated (this area was augmented by 45 square miles transferred in 1875 from Mahárájandra-durga); pop. (1871), 69,817, of whom 67,076 are Hindus, 1992 Muhammadans, 133 Jains, and 616 Christians; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £11,397, or 4s. 5d. per cultivated acre. A wild tract beneath the Western Gháts, which has always enjoyed an independent history. Originally called Balam, or 'Strong,' it is said to have been colonized by the Vijáyanagar monarchs in the 14th century. To them is attributed the institution of the *patels* or head-men, who still retain hereditary feudal powers. In 1397, the country was made over to a line of *paligárs*, who maintained their authority until the beginning of the present century. The last of the dynasty, Venkatádri Náyak, attempted to extend his territory after the capture of Seringapatam by the British in 1799; two years later, he was captured and hanged. The *táluk* is divided into 6 *nads*, and subdivided into 36 *mandes*. Over each *mande* is a *nad* or head-man; and the foremost six of these, the *patels*, who also preside over the *nads*, are persons of great local influence. Their houses are generally fortified, and within their walls they exercise many of the attributes of a mediæval baron. In physical appearance and in dress, the inhabitants present a marked contrast to the people of the low country. They always go armed with a matchlock and a knife. The hills of Manjarábád afford some of the most beautiful scenery in India. Forests of magnificent timber are broken by green glades, and overhung by precipitous rocks. The soil is fertile, and rice is grown in abundance on the terraced slopes of the valleys. Coffee was introduced about a quarter of a century ago; there are now 155 estates in the *táluk* owned by Europeans, occupying 21,000 acres, and 9500 native holdings, covering 9000 acres.

Manjeri.—Town in Malabar District, Madras. Lat. 11° 6′ 30″ N., long. 76° 9′ 50″ E.; pop. (1871), 8094; number of houses, 1590. Notable as the scene of one of the worst Moplá outrages in 1849. The native troops sent against the fanatics were routed, and their officers killed; and it was not till European troops were brought up that the rising was suppressed. Contains courts, dispensary, etc.

Mánjhand.—*Táluk* in the Sehwan Deputy Collectorate, Sind, lying between 25° 48′ and 26° 19′ N. lat., and between 67° 53′ 30″ and 68° 21′ E. long. Area, 118 square miles; pop. (1872), 18,551; total revenue (1873-74), £2079.

Mánjhand.—Town and municipality in Mánjhand *táluk;* situated in lat. 25° 54′ 45″ N., and long. 68° 16′ 30″ E., close to the Indus, 88 feet above sea level, 42 miles north of Kotri, and about the same distance south of Sehwan. Headquarters of a *múkhtiárkár*, and containing the usual public buildings, school, post office, etc. Pop. (1872), 2872;

municipal revenue (1873-74), £147. Manufacture of coarse cloth and shoes. Large river-borne trade in grain.

Mánjhandpur.—South-western *tahsíl* of Allahábád District, N.-Western Provinces; consisting of an alluvial strip of upland in the Doáb, lying along the north bank of the Jumna, and much cut up by ravines leading down to the river. Area, 262 square miles, of which 154 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 116,117; land revenue, £24,5... Government revenue, £27,429; rental paid by cultivators, £... incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 11½d.

Mánjhi.—Town and police station in Sáran District, Bengal ... Gogra (Ghagrá). Lat. 25° 50' 10" N., long. 84° 31' 20" E.; pop. 5747, chiefly engaged in river traffic.

Manjhia.—Town in Hardoi District, Oudh; situated 4 mi... east of Piháni, on the road to Gopámau. A prosperous ... village of 749 houses, with bi-weekly market. A small bo... police are supported by octroi dues. Village school. The ... principally consists of Chamárs, but the proprietors are Cha...

Mánjira.—Village in Ellichpur District, Berar; near... which, on the face of a hill to the west of the valley, ar... rock-cut temples or monasteries. One of these is complet... with rubbish, but the other is accessible by a short flight of s... to a low doorway. It is about 16 feet square inside, and ... high; 2 rows of square pillars, roughly hewn, extend inw... the inner row being only half finished. On the plateau, ... never-failing spring of excellent water, received in a rock-c... 5 feet square and 6 feet deep. Underneath the basin ... been cut away, rude pillars only being left as supports. ... reservoirs in the immediate neighbourhood are choked u...

Mánkapur.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; situated ... from Baksár (Buxar), 2 miles north of Bhagwantnagar, ... south-east of Unao town. Pop. (1869), 1969 Hindus and ... madans; total, 2153, residing in 507 mud houses. Foun... chief, Mán Kewal Khás, about 600 years ago. No man... a little goldsmiths' and carpenters' work is carried on.

Mánkerá.—Village in Derá Ismáil Khán District, Pu... in lat. 31° 23' 15" N., and long. 71° 28' 45" E., on the old ... Indus, south-east of the headquarters station. At present ... hamlet of no importance, but famous as having been ... Nawáb Muhammad Khán, ancestor of the present N... Ismáil Khán. Sháh Zamán, ruler of Khorasan, confer... ment of the northern Deráját in 1792 upon Muhammad K... a relative of Muzaffar Khán of Multán. The new gr... against the actual holder, Abdul Nabi, one of the Ka... Sind, and, defeating him at Leiah, took possession o...

Muhammad Khán afterwards made himself master of all the trans-Indus portion of Derá Ismáil Khán District, except Tánk; and fixing his capital at Mánkerá, died in 1815, after a prosperous reign of twenty-three years. His grandson, Sher Muhammad Khán, succeeded to the principality; but in 1821, Ranjít Sinh led a Síkh army against Mánkerá. The late Nawáb had strongly fortified his chief town, surrounding it with a cordon of 12 forts, within whose circle he had permitted no wells to be sunk, so as to cut off the water supply of any invader. The Síkh Mahárájá, however, moved straight upon Mánkerá, sinking wells as he advanced, and invested the fort, which surrendered after a siege of twenty-five days. The young Nawáb retired across the Indus to DERA ISMAIL KHAN; and the subsequent history of his family will be found in the article on that place.

Mankúr.—Town in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 25′ 40″ N., long. 87° 36′ 30″ E. Station on the chord line of the East Indian Railway, 90 miles distant from Calcutta. Seat of considerable trade. Annual fair in January.

Manmad.—Municipal town in Násik District, Bombay; situated in lat. 20° 14′ 50″ N., and long. 74° 28′ 40″ E., on the Jabalpur branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 45 miles north-east of Násik, and 161 miles north-east of Bombay. Pop. (1872), 3435; annual municipal income, £55. Post office.

Mannárgúdi. — Municipal town in Tanjore District, Madras; situated in lat. 10° 40′ 10″ N., and long. 79° 29′ 30″ E., 24 miles south-east of Tanjore. Pop. (1871), 17,735, of whom a considerable portion are Bráhmans; number of houses, 2065. There is a fine pagoda with a popular car festival; and a Wesleyan Mission is established in the place. Active trade in cloth of local manufacture, and in metal. Municipal revenue, £1750; incidence of taxation, 5½d. per head.

Manohar (*Manohargarh*). — Port in Sáwantwári State, Bombay. Lat. 16° 2′ 45″ N., long. 74° 1′ E.

Manoli.—Town in Belgáum District, Bombay; situated 42 miles east of Belgáum, in lat. 16° 16′ N., and long. 74° 40′ E. Pop. (1872), 6232. There is a considerable industry in dyeing yarns. The town is known as the spot where General Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, overtook the notorious freebooter Dhind-deva Wágh, after along pursuit from the Mysore territory. The freebooter with his followers had encamped on the banks of the river Málprabha, opposite the town, where he was surprised by General Wellesley at the head of a body of cavalry.

Manora.—Cape in Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, and lighthouse, with a fixed light 120 feet above sea level, and visible upwards of 17 miles, but only from 7 to 9 miles during the south-west monsoon. Lat. 24° 47′ 15″ N., long. 67° 1′ E. Manora forms one of the quarters of the Karáchi municipality, and is the station of the Master Attendant,

municipal revenue (1873-74), £147. Manufacture of coarse cloth and shoes. Large river-borne trade in grain.

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Mánjira.—Village in Ellichpur District, Berar; nearly opposite to which, on the face of a hill to the west of the valley, are two small rock-cut temples or monasteries. One of these is completely closed up with rubbish, but the other is accessible by a short flight of steps leading to a low doorway. It is about 16 feet square inside, and 7 or 8 feet high; 2 rows of square pillars, roughly hewn, extend inwards, those of the inner row being only half finished. On the plateau, not far off, is a never-failing spring of excellent water, received in a rock-cut basin about 5 feet square and 6 feet deep. Underneath the basin, the rock has been cut away, rude pillars only being left as supports. Two similar reservoirs in the immediate neighbourhood are choked up.

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Mánkerá.—Village in Derá Ismáil Khán District, Punjab; situated in lat. 31° 23′ 15″ N., and long. 71° 28′ 45″ E., on the old left bank of the Indus, south-east of the headquarters station. At present an agricultural hamlet of no importance, but famous as having been the capital of Nawáb Muhammad Khán, ancestor of the present Nawábs of Derá Ismáil Khán. Sháh Zamán, ruler of Khorásán, conferred the government of the northern Deráját in 1792 upon Muhammad Khán, Sadozái, a relative of Muzaffar Khán of Múltán. The new grantee advanced against the actual holder, Abdul Nabi, one of the Kalhora family of Sind, and, defeating him at Leiah, took possession of his territory.

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Manohar (*Manohargarh*). — Port in Sáwantwári State, Bombay. Lat. 16° 2′ 45″ N., long. 74° 1′ E.

Manoli.—Town in Belgáum District, Bombay; situated 42 miles east of Belgáum, in lat. 16° 16′ N., and long. 74° 40′ E. Pop. (1872), 6232. There is a considerable industry in dyeing yarns. The town is known as the spot where General Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, overtook the notorious freebooter Dhind-deva Wágh, after along pursuit from the Mysore territory. The freebooter with his followers had encamped on the banks of the river Málprabha, opposite the town, where he was surprised by General Wellesley at the head of a body of cavalry.

Manora.—Cape in Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, and light-house, with a fixed light 120 feet above sea level, and visible upwards of 17 miles, but only from 7 to 9 miles during the south-west monsoon. Lat. 24° 47′ 15″ N., long. 67° 1′ E. Manora forms one of the quarters of the Karáchi municipality, and is the station of the Master Attendant,

who lives in the fort, which is said to have been built in 1797. The Port and Pilot Establishment, the Superintendent of the Harbour Improvement Works, and a portion of the Indo-European Telegraph Establishment are also resident here. Manora contains European and Eurasian schools, church, library, billiard-room, etc. An annual fair is held in March in honour of a venerable *pír* or saint, said to be buried here under miraculous circumstances. Manora is a very healthy place, and an occasional resort for invalids from Karáchi. Pop. (1872), 824.

Manori.—Port in Tanna District, Bombay. Lat. 19° 12′ 30″ N., long. 72° 50′ E. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1873-74—imports, £694; and exports, £8923.

Man-oung. — Island and town in Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma.—*See* CHEDUBA.

Man-oung-Myoma. — Revenue circle in Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma; situated in north-east of Cheduba, or Manoung Island. Area, 54 square miles. Chief products—rice and tobacco. Pop. (1877), 5393; gross revenue, £3327.

Mánsa.—Native State within the British Political Agency of Mahi Kánta in the Province of Guzerat, Bombay. It is situated in the Sábar Kánta Subdivision, and surrounded by the Gáekwár's territory. Pop. (1872), 11,893. The principal agricultural products are millet, pulse, and wheat. The Chief is descended from the Chaura dynasty, one of whom founded Anhilwára Pátan in 746. On the downfall of the house of Patan, an assignment of land appears to have been given to the ancestors of the Chief of Mánsa, but the date cannot be ascertained. The present (1876-77) ruler is Thákur Ráj Sinhjí, a Hindu of the Chaura Rájput caste. He is twenty-seven years of age, and manages his estate in person. He enjoys an estimated gross yearly revenue of £2300, and pays a tribute of £1175 to the Gáekwár. The succession to the chiefship follows the rule of primogeniture. There is 1 school, with 198 pupils.

Mánsa.—Chief town of Mánsa State, Mahi Kánta Agency, Bombay. Lat. 23° 26′ N., long. 72° 43′ 10″ E.

Mánsehra.—Northern *tahsíl* of Hazára District, Punjab, comprising the deep glen of Khágán, and the wild mountain country at its foot. Area under cultivation, 143,720 acres; pop. (1868), 109,415; persons per square mile, 77.

Mánsehra.—Town in Hazára District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Pop. (1868), 3171. Situated in lat. 34° 20′ 10″ N., and long. 73° 14′ 30″ E., on the right bank of an affluent of the Sirhan, north of Abbottábád; on the main District road from Kálak-Ka-Sarái to the Kashmír border. Small number of resident Kshattriya traders do a considerable business in grain and country produce. *Tahsíli*, police station, post office.

Mansúrkota.—Town and small *zamíndári* estate in Ganjám District, Madras. Lat. 19° 17′ N., long. 84° 58′ E. No longer of any importance, but formerly one of the busiest of our seaports on this coast. In 1788, it was the centre of a *parganá*, and at one time all the Aska sugar was exported from here.

Mansúrnagar.—*Parganá* in Hardoi District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Alamnagar and Piháni, on the east by Gopámau, and on the south and west by South and North Sára. Area, 25 square miles, of which only 9 are under cultivation. Although backward, it is readily capable of improvement. The soil is generally good, though not so fertile as in the adjacent *parganás* of North and South Sára. Hogs, *nilgái*, and a few wild cattle infest the jungle, and damage the crops. The population numbers (1869) 6286, or only 242 to the square mile, this being the most sparsely inhabited *parganá* in the District. Of the 25 villages comprising the *parganá*, 15 are held in *zamíndári* tenure, 1 in *tálukdári*, and 9 in imperfect *pattidári*. The Chauhans hold the proprietary right of 4 villages; the Chaudhári Gaurs, 6; Gautamas, ½ a village; Sayyids, 4; Patháns, 3½; Bráhmans, 4; Káyasths, 2; and Government, 1. Tillage is fair, especially in the Chauhán villages, whose proprietors are industrious and enterprising. Wheat, barley, and millet are the chief crops, and occupy more than three-fifths of the cultivated area. Gram, *bájra*, and *más* occupy more than another fifth; the remainder being taken up with indigo, tobacco, sugar-cane, and opium. The Government land revenue, excluding cesses, amounts to £1112, equal to an average of 3s. 8⅛d. per cultivated acre, or 1s. 4d. per acre of total area. No markets or fairs are held in the *parganá*, and there is only a single small school, with an average of 43 pupils, at the village of Mansurnagar. The *parganá* dates from 1806, when Rái Mánsa Rám, the *chakládár* of Muhamdi, took some villages from Sára and Gopámau and formed them into a new fiscal division.

Mantrala Kanama.—Pass in the Nallamallái Hills, Karnál (Kurnool) District, Madras. Lat. 15° 54′ N., long. 78° 58′ E.

Mantreswar. — Village and police station in Bardwán District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 25′ 30″ N., long. 88° 9′ E.; pop. under 5000.

Manwán.—*Parganá* in Sítápur District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Bári *parganá*, on the east and south by Lucknow District, and on the west by the Gumti and Saráyan rivers. Area, 69 square miles, or 44,075 acres; of which, 29,028 acres are cultivated, 5074 cultivable but not under tillage, 2476 rent-free, and 497 acres waste. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 28,720, and Muhammadans, 1833; total, 30,553. The incidence of the Government land assessment is at the rate of 4s. 0⅞d. per acre of cultivated area, 3s. 4d. per acre of assessed area, and 2s. 8¾d. per acre of total area. Of the 69 villages comprising the *parganá*, 39 are held under *tálukdári*, and 30 under *zamíndári* tenure. Of

these 69 villages, 65 are owned by Panwár Kshattriyas. Three Panwár brothers are said to have come from Gwalior in Akbar's reign, and to have invaded and seized Itaunja and Mahoná in Lucknow District, and Saraura Nílgáon in Sítápur. Their descendants still hold these estates, with the exception of Mahoná, which was confiscated for its owner's complicity in the rebellion of 1857.

Manwán.—Village in Sítápur District, Oudh, and headquarters of Manwán *parganá;* situated on the Saráyan river, 1 mile west of the Lucknow and Sítápur high road, and 4 miles south of Bári town. Pop. (1869), 1069. The village is of interest merely on account of its great antiquity. It is traditionally said to have been founded 5000 years ago by Rájá Mándháta, a monarch of the Ajodhya Solar race, but to have relapsed into jungle on his death. Subsequently, an Ahír settled on the eastern, and a Musalmán named Mustáfa Khán on the western portion of the ruins, and rebuilt the old town, which received the name of Mánpur Mustáfábád. The remains of Rájá Mándháta's fort are still extant. It was apparently a massive structure, and placed on high ground overlooking the river, covering an area of 30 acres. The old bricks are used by the natives for building purposes in the village.

Máo-beh-lyrkar.—Village in the Khási Hills, Assam; about 18 miles from Shillong, and 5000 feet above sea level. Coal-beds are worked to a small extent, sufficient to supply the inhabitants of Shillong with fuel for domestic purposes. The word 'Máo' in this and other Khásia names signifies 'stone' or 'monolith.'

Máo-don.—Petty State in the Khási Hills, Assam. Pop. (1872), 253. The presiding chief, whose title is *Sardár*, is named U Mohor Sinh. The natural products include *tezpát* or bay-leaves, pine-apples and oranges. Limestone is quarried, and coal has been found 400 feet above sea level. There is a regular market here, for trade with Sylhet.

Máo-flang.—Mountain plateau in the Khási Hills, with a village of the same name 14 miles west of Shillong. Highest peak, 5931 feet above sea level. The village is connected with Shillong by a good cart-road.

Máo-iong (or *Máo-yang*).—Petty State in the Khási Hills, Assam. Pop. (1872), 1238; revenue, £50, chiefly from dues on lime-quarries. The presiding chief, whose title is *Siem*, is named U Jit Sinh. The natural products include cotton, bees-wax, and honey. Mats are manufactured, and lime is quarried.

Máo-syn-rám.—Petty State in the Khási Hills, Assam, on a mountain range of the same name. Pop. (1872), 947; revenue, £33. The presiding chief, whose title is *Siem*, is named U Ramman. The natural products include millet, potatoes, ginger, and honey. Mats are manufactured; and lime, coal, and iron are found. The highest peak of the mountain range is 5810 feet above sea level, and coal is found at an elevation of 4000 feet.

Máo-thad-rái-shan.—Mountain range in the Khási Hills, Assam; whose highest peak is 6297 feet above sea level.

Marámarnái.—River of Assam; rising in the independent Daphlá Hills, and flowing south into the LOHIT, an important channel of the Brahmaputra. Its course within British territory marks the boundary between the Districts of Darrang and Lakhimpur.

Marang Baru (or *Barágái*).—Hill on the edge of the plateau of Hazáribágh District, Bengal; situated in lat. 23° 32′ 45″ N., and long. 85° 29′ 45″ E., on the boundary line between Hazáribágh and Lohárdagá Districts. It rises 2400 feet above the valley of the Dámodar, 1300 feet above the Chutiá Nágpur plateau, and attains an extreme elevation above the sea of 3445 feet.

Mará Tísta.—An old and now deserted river bed of the TISTA, a river of Bengal.

Marble Rocks.—On the banks of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) river in Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces.—*See* BHERAGHAT.

Mardán.—Town in Pesháwar District, Punjab.—*See* HOTI MARDAN.

Márehra (or *Márhara*).—Municipal town in Etah District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 27° 44′ N., long. 78° 36′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 9214, consisting of 4584 Hindus and 4630 Musalmáns. Spread over an extensive site, 12 miles north of Etah. Close to the town lies the suburb of Miyán-ke-basti, the principal Sayyid quarter, surrounded by high walls, with corner towers and gateways, and owned by the descendants of Sayyid Sháh Barkat-ullá, a Musalmán saint, whose tomb and a beautiful mosque at its side form the most attractive features of the town. Considerable trade in cotton and indigo-seed. Police station, post office, *sarái*. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £469; from taxes, £373, or 9⅝d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Margrám.—Town in Murshidábád District, Bengal. Lat. 24° 8′ 45″ N., long. 87° 53′ 30″ E.; situated about 20 miles due west of Barhampur, near the Dwárká river. Pop. (1872), 5766. Silk-worm rearing is extensively followed; silk is woven into *sáris* and pieces, and sent to Murshidábád for sale.

Mariádoh.—Village in Damoh District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 24° 16′ N., and long. 79° 42′ E., on the Jogídábár *nálá*, 10 miles north of Hattá. The Bundelá Rájás of Charkhári built the fort, which encloses a building called the Báródarí, where they resided when they visited Mariádoh. Their game preserve or *ramná* is near the village. In 1860, they made over the place to the British in exchange for certain territory in Hamírpur District. Coarse cloth is manufactured at Mariádoh, which contains a police station-house, a District post office, and a school.

Mariáhu.—Southern *tahsíl* of Jaunpur District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a level plain, intersected by numerous small

and shallow lakes. Area, 331 square miles, of which 191 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 205,373; land revenue, £32,430; total Government revenue, £34,448; rental paid by cultivators, £45,437; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 3s. 0¾d.

Máriáo.—Petty State in the Khási Hills, Assam. Pop. (1872), 2306; revenue, £12. The presiding chief, whose title is *Siem*, is named U Ron Sinh. The principal products are rice, millet, Indian corn, and sugar-cane. Mats are manufactured.

Marjá.—Pass in Bashahr State, Punjab, lying in lat. 31° 16′ N., and long. 78° 27′ E. (Thornton); elevation, between 16,000 and 17,000 feet. One of four passes which, within the space of little more than a mile, cross the Himálayan range which bounds Kunáwár to the south. Only practicable from May to the beginning of August.

Marjáta (or *Kágá*).—Estuary in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated in lat. 21° 44′ N., long. 89° 32′ E., two and a half or three leagues to the eastward of Pátní Island. It has a wide entrance, with the channel stretching from the land on the east side nearly south by west, and shoaling gradually from the land to three or three and a half fathoms outside. The Párbhánga Islands, two in number, lie 4 or 5 miles inside the entrance of the river; on the southernmost there is said to be a tank of fresh water. On the reefs bounding the channel leading to the Marjáta, in about lat. 21° 30′ N., the ship *Berkshire* was lost in 1771.

Márkandí.—Village in Chánda District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 19° 41′ N., and long. 79° 52′ E., on the left bank of the Wainganga. The village derives its name from a beautiful group of temples which stand on a high bluff overlooking a wide curve in the river. This group comprises a monastery, built of purple stone, and is enclosed in a quadrangle, with entrances on three sides, and a row of cells along the fourth side. Among the ancient sculptures are several of warriors with sword or battle-axe, and bow and arrows, all wearing anklets. The centre temple is entirely covered with modern carving of rare excellence, consisting mainly of human figures about 2 feet high, and apparently representing scenes in a continuous tale. The village is said to have been founded in the 14th century by Vyankat Ráo, a Gond chief of Arpallí; but, owing to the yearly inundations, it now contains only 25 houses. The fair held every February is not well attended. The islets in the river near Márkandí supply excellent stone for mills.

Maroli.—Port in Tanna District, Bombay. Lat. 20° 18′ N., long. 72° 46′ E. Average annual value of trade for five years ending 1873-74—imports, £20, and exports, £1212.

Ma-ro-thoung-sha-khai. — Revenue circle in the Tsam-bay-rún township, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 65 square miles, for the most part forest land. In the south is the Sha-

khai-gyí Lake, a fine sheet of water, fed during the rains by the Daga river, with which it communicates by two small streams. Near the lake is the old Myo-gún fort or stockade. Pop. (1876-77), 3296; gross revenue, £989.

Marpha.—Ruined fort in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces. Formerly capital of a Bhagel Rájá, tributary to the Panná princes; but the last of the line fell in the battle of Chachariya, about 1780, since which period the fort has fallen into decay. Afterwards occupied by predatory chieftains, whom Colonel Meiselback ousted in 1804. Four gates give access to the fort, and it contains several unpublished inscriptions.

Marri.—*Tahsíl*, town, and hills, in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab.—*See* MURREE.

Mársághái.—Town in Cuttack District, Bengal; situated in lat. 20° 24′ N., and long. 86° 37′ E., 23 miles from False Point Harbour. Connected with Cuttack city, 42 miles distant, by the KENDRAPARA CANAL, which drops into tidal waters at Mársághái. An extension of this canal for 15 miles farther towards False Point is in course of construction.

Martaban.—Revenue circle in Amherst District, British Burma.—*See* MUT-TA-MA.

Martaban.—Township in the Tha-htún Subdivision of Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; bounded on the west by the Bay of Bengal. Traversed from south-east to north-west and then north by a range of hills culminating in the Zeng-gyaik peak, 3500 feet above sea level. To the east of this main chain the country is forest-clad, and but little cultivated; on the west lie extensive and fertile plains, intersected by numerous streams and creeks, which afford an easy outlet for the large quantities of rice grown in the tract. The principal rivers are the Bheng-loung and Reng-gnyiem, flowing west to the sea, and the Da-rien and Kha-daing, tributaries of the Da-ray-bouk. The extreme west of Martaban township is, in parts, liable to damage from the entry of the sea-water through the various rivers; the south coast is protected from inundation by mud embankments. In the north are considerable stretches of mangrove swamp. The chief town is MARTABAN (*vide infra*). The township, which, with Tha-htún and Hpa-gat, was transferred from Shwe-gyeng to Amherst District in 1865, contains the 9 circles of Toung-tsún, Reng-gnyiem, Poung, Kha-daing, Da-rien, Mú-kyí (Moo-kyee), Mút-ta-ma, Gaw, and Tsam-pa-na-go. Pop. (1876-77), 31,097; land revenue, £13,359; capitation tax, £3046.

Martaban.—Small town in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 16° 32′ N., and long. 97° 38′ E., on the right bank of the Salwín, immediately opposite Maulmain, between the river and a range of hills stretching up north-west, and crowned by white pagodas. Pop. (1877), 1673. For several years Martaban was

the headquarters of the township, and contained a court-house. There is a good circuit-house here, and below it a wooden wharf; on the bank of the Salwín is an ancient pagoda, the Mya-thien-dan, which has been recently repaired. Martaban is said to have been built in 576 A.D., by Tha-ma-la, the first King of Pegu, and was afterwards enlarged by the King of Burma in the middle of the 13th century. For some time after the capital was transferred to Pegu (1323 A.D.), the seat of Government seems to have remained at Martaban. During the subsequent wars between the Peguans, the Siamese, and the Burmese, the place was several times besieged and captured; and was, on more than one occasion, the last stronghold of the reigning sovereign. The Portuguese historian, Manuel de Faria-y-Souza, describes it as being, in 1540, 'the metropolis of a great and flourishing kingdom,' and gives a doubtless very much exaggerated account of its wealth.

Towards the end of the 16th century, Martaban was taken by the King of Siam, who appointed a governor over it and the surrounding country. Its history after this is somewhat obscure. It seems frequently to have changed hands; and during the 17th and 18th centuries, was the seat of a governor elected by the monarch, Peguan or Burmese, who happened to rule the country. In the first Burmese war the place was besieged and taken (29th November 1824), and it figured again conspicuously in the second Burmese war. It was captured on the 5th of April 1852, and an attempt made by the Burmese to recover it a few weeks later was frustrated. Martaban was for centuries noted for the manufacture of great glazed jars, called after it Martabani.

Martolí.—Village in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces, among the wild northern mountains; situated in lat. 30° 21′ N., long. 80° 13′ E., on the route to Hundes or Chinese Thibet by the Johár Pass. Thornton states that the people, who are Bhutiyas, carry on a flourishing trade with Hundes. During the winter, the whole population migrates to the lower valleys. Elevation above sea level, 11,352 feet.

Marttan.—Ruined temple in Kashmír State, Punjab.—*See* MATAN.

Marúfganj.—Mart in Patná District, Bengal; the most important of the business quarters of PATNA CITY. Extensive river traffic. Imports—salt, rice, cotton, timber, and sugar; exports—wheat, barley, oil-seeds, *ghí*, and iron.

Márwár.—State in Rájputána, Central India.—*See* JODHPUR.

Masan.—A tributary of the Little Gandak river, Bengal, rising in the Sumeswar range, close to Fort Sumeswar in Champáran District. It drains a large tract of country, receiving almost all the flood-water of the Dún. It only flows during floods and rains, and soon dries up when the rain ceases. Bed and banks, sandy.

Masár.—Town in Sháhábád District, Bengal; situated a little to the south of the East Indian Railway, about 6 miles west of Arrah. It has

been identified with Mo-ho-so-lo of the Chinese pilgrim Hiouen Thsang; and from his account must then have stood close to the Ganges, which now flows 9 miles to the north, traces of the high banks of its old channel still, however, remaining. The old name of Masár, as proved by seven inscriptions in the Jain temple of Párasnáth, was Mahásará; but the original name was Sonitpur, famous as the residence of Banásar, whose daughter Ukha was married to a grandson of Krishna. There is a Jain temple here, with several Bráhmanical images. It bears an inscription dated 1386 A.D. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton discovered some Buddhist idols in a heap of mud and bricks immediately west of the village, and assigns them to Cherús. The town contains 14 fine old wells and numerous tanks. The population of the old town has been estimated at about 20,000. At present it is only a straggling village, half a mile long by a third of a mile broad.

Mashobra.—Village in Keunthál State, Punjab, situated in lat. 31° 8′ N., and long. 77° 7′ E., a few miles from Simla on the Great Hindustan and Thibet Road. A small village, but much frequented during the summer season by visitors from Simla. Hotel.

Masjídkur.—In Jessor District, Bengal; site of an old mosque, still used as a place of worship, and attributed to Khán Jahán, the builder of the Sát-gambaz. This ruined edifice has 9 domes and 4 towers at its 4 corners, the roof is supported by 4 pillars of greystone. Masjídkur (literally, 'The digging out of a mosque') lies in lat. 22° 28′ 45″ N., and long. 89° 19′ 30″ E., 6 miles south of Chándkhálí on the Kabadak; and was so called by the pioneers of cultivation in the SUNDARBANS, who came upon it while clearing away the jungle along the banks of the Kabadak.

Máskhál.—Island lying off the south of Chittagong District, Bengal. Lat. (centre) 21° 36′ N., long. 91° 57′ E. It resembles in character and general appearance the Gangetic Sundarbans. Through the centre, and along the east coast-line, runs a range of low hills, of which Garamchori, 288 feet, is the highest; on the west and north sides fringed with a belt of mangrove swamps and creeks. There is a ferry under Government management, across Máskhál channel.

Mastgarh.—Fortress in Bashahr State, Punjab. Lat. 31° 20′ N., long. 77° 39′ E. According to Thornton, it stands on the crest of a lofty ridge, which proceeds northward from the Morál-ki-kánda, a south-westerly spur of the Himálayas. Held by the Gúrkhas during their occupation of Bashahr. Elevation above sea level, about 6000 feet.

Másti.—Village in Kolár District, Mysore State. Lat. 12° 52′ 30″ N., long. 78° 2′ 25″ E.; pop. (1871), 2523. Founded by a petty chief in the 16th century. Weekly fair on Wednesdays.

Masulipatam (*Machli-patnam*, or 'Fish Town.' This is the received etymology of the name, but according to Colonel Sule it is erroneous. He thinks that the coast is almost certainly the *Maisolia* of the Greek

geographers, and he believes the name to be a relic of that word).—Chief town and principal seaport of Kistna District, Madras; situated on a small offshoot of the Kistna river, 215 miles north of Madras city, in 16° 9′ 8″ N. lat., and 81° 11′ 38″ E. long.

Population (census of 1871), 36,316, including 1717 native Christians; number of houses, 9997; municipal revenue (1876-77), £2124; incidence of taxation, 11d. per head. Machli-patnam (the *Metchli-patam* of early writers) is properly the name of the native quarter or *pet*, which lies nearly 3 miles distant from the fort on the sea-coast, which latter is called *Machli-bandar*, or 'fish port,' familiarly abbreviated by all classes into *Bandar*. The fort contains the barracks and arsenal, which have been suffered to fall into decay since the withdrawal of the garrison in 1865; the Protestant and the Roman Catholic churches. All round stretches an expanse of waste land, swampy in the rainy season, and deep with sand during the remainder of the year. About a mile to the north-west rises a slight hill, on the highest part of which are the houses of the European residents, and the modern cantonment. Farther away, and on a lower elevation, stands the *pet* or native quarter, which is fairly well laid out with streets and brick houses. In this quarter is the site of the French factory—a patch about 300 yards square—still claimed by France. The road where the residents ride and drive possesses an interesting memorial of former days in 'Eliza's tree,' so called from Mrs. Draper, the famous correspondent of Sterne. In the centre of the native quarter, where two principal streets cross, stands a collection of upright slabs, exquisitely carved with figures in alto-relievo, which are said to have been brought from a Jain temple. Offices of Collector and Judge, jail, and several schools. Masulipatam is still the principal port of Kistna District, though it has few natural advantages, and suffers in addition from competition with COCONADA, on the Godávari, with which the Kistna delta has inland communication by water. The sea deepens so gradually that large ships cannot anchor nearer than 5 miles from the shore; and during the monsoon, from October to December, all communication is suspended. Barges and native craft come up the river and go on by canal to BEZWARA, on the main channel of the Kistna, but they can only cross the bar at high tide. The export trade is partly to Europe; imports are chiefly local. In 1874-75, the number of ships which called (including steamers) was 235, of 106,000 tons burden. The value of exports (oil-seeds and cotton) was £171,400; of imports, £119,600. The harbour light is a white fixed dioptric, on a white flagstaff 12 feet high.

Masulipatam, which is said to have been first acquired by the Musalmáns in 1480, was the earliest British settlement on the Coromandel coast. An agency was established here in 1611, by Captain Hippon, who commanded the *Globe* on what is known as the 'seventh voyage' of the East India Company. A fragment of a journal kept by

a Dutch sailor on this voyage is preserved among the MSS. at the India office. In 1622, the English traders, driven by the Dutch from the Spice Islands, and also from Pulicat, succeeded in founding a factory at Masulipatam. In 1628, they were driven out for four years, but they returned under a *farmán* from the Muhammadan king of Golconda, which is known as the 'Golden Firman.' The station then became the centre of English trade in these parts, and was managed by a Chief and Council. About 1660, the Dutch also established a factory; and the French followed in 1669. In 1686, the Dutch quietly took possession of the Government of the town, forbidding the English to trade. This state of things did not last long, however, for, three years later, Zulfikár Khán seized the factory, and in 1690 the full right of trade in Masulipatam was given to the English by *farmán*. From this time until the Wars of the Karnatic, there appear to have been no events of importance at Masulipatam. In 1750, it was, with the surrounding country, given to the French by the Nizám; and from 1753 to 1759, the English were excluded. In the latter year, Colonel Forde carried the town and fort by storm; and in 1765, the 'Northern Circars' were assigned to the English. It was to promote the export of cotton goods that Europeans first settled on the Coromandel coast. Up to the present day, weavers form a large portion of the inhabitants of Masulipatam, though their trade has greatly declined since the beginning of this century. Their operations, besides weaving, include printing, bleaching, washing, and dressing. In former days, the chintzes of Masulipatam had a great reputation abroad for the freshness and permanency of their dyes, the colours becoming brighter after washing than before. There is still a small demand for these articles in Burma, the Straits, and the Persian Gulf; but steam machinery has nearly beaten the hand-loom out of the field. Another speciality was *metapollams* or kerchiefs for the head, generally called *madapollams*, after a weaving town of that name in Godávari District, where they were made; but this industry was ruined by the refusal of the West Indian negroes to wear these kerchiefs after their emancipation. Tartans, ginghams, towels, and table-linen are still manufactured to a small extent.

In modern times, Masulipatam has acquired a new interest as the centre of missionary labour in the Telugu country. In 1841, the Church Missionary Society established a station here under Fox and Noble, the latter of whom died in 1865, after an uninterrupted sojourn of twenty-four years. His work and name are commemorated in the Noble High School, which is intended to impart a thorough English education to boys of the higher castes. This school, founded in 1843, is supported partly by subscriptions from England, and is also aided and inspected by Government. It ranks as a Collegiate School, and was in 1876-77 attended by 234 pupils, of whom 13 matriculated at the Madras University, and 2 passed the First Arts examination. Instruc-

tion is given daily in the Bible; but the school is not intended to be directly a proselytizing agency. The active work of conversion is carried on chiefly through a boarding school for low-caste girls, which was managed for 31 years by Mrs. Sharkey, the wife of a Eurasian missionary. The number of converts in the neighbourhood of Masulipatam has increased rapidly in recent years, the majority having been won from the out-caste tribe of Malas. In 1851, the number of adherents was only 60, but the returns show 260 in 1861, 1717 in 1871, and 4013 in 1878. In the last year, there were also 11 European and 3 native missionaries, and 82 schools, with 2459 pupils.

The importance of Masulipatam is now on the decline. Her manufactures and trade have decayed, from causes which probably will not be reversed. Her garrison was withdrawn in 1865; and the reliefs from Secunderábád to Rangoon no longer pass this way, since the opening of the Madras Railway. But the heaviest blow was given by the storm wave of 1864, which swept over the entire town, and is reported to have destroyed 30,000 lives. As happens not unfrequently, this disaster occurred at night, so that many were drowned in their beds. Even in the European quarter, the survivors owed their lives to being warned in time from the fort, so that they were able to escape to the upper storeys of their houses. A similar calamity is traditionally related to have befallen the place in the days of Dutch occupation.

Masura.—Town in Ratnágiri District, Bombay; situated in lat. 16° 10′ N., and long. 73° 32′ 30″ E., 8 miles north-east of Málwan. Pop. (1872), 7308. Post office.

Masúri.—Town and sanitarium in Dehra Dún District, North-Western Provinces.—*See* MUSSOOREE.

Mátábhángá (or *Háulí*).—One of the three great 'Nadiyá rivers,' the other two being the BHAGIRATHI and JALANGI. All three rivers are offshoots of the Padmá (the main channel of the Ganges). The Mátábhángá leaves the parent stream about 10 miles below the point where the Jalangí diverges from it. It flows first in a south-easterly, and afterwards in a tortuous south-westerly direction to Krishnaganj, due east of Krishnagar, the District headquarters, where (lat. 23° 24′ 30″ N., long. 88° 45′ E.) it branches into two streams, called the Churní and Ichhámatí. The Churní passes in a south-westerly direction past Mamjuání and Ránághát, and falls into the Húglí between Sántipur and the railway station of Chagdah. The Ichhámatí flows south, passing by Nonáganj and Bangáon, till it enters the District of the Twenty-four Parganás. The great difficulty of keeping this and the other 'Nadiyá rivers' open for navigation is referred to at length in the article on NADIYA DISTRICT. To effect this object, the Government annually spends large sums of money.

Matak.—Tract of country in Lakhimpur District, Assam, lying along the south or left bank of the Brahmaputra; bounded on the south by the

Burí Dihing river, and on the east by the Singpho Hills. During the later years of the Aham dynasty, this region acquired considerable historical importance. It was chiefly inhabited by the Moámáriás or Marans, a rude tribe who early adopted a Vishnuvite form of Hinduism. On more than one occasion they rose in rebellion against the attempts of the Aham Rájás to impose upon them the worship of the goddess Durgá. In the reign of Gaurináth they even invaded Lower Assam, and were only driven back from Gauháti by the intervention of a British force. They succeeded, however, in establishing their own independence under a chief, with the title of Bar Senápatí. In 1825, on the expulsion of the Burmese from Assam, the native chief of Matak was recognised by the British. But on his death in 1839, no agreement was come to with his successor; and Matak was forthwith placed under direct British administration, together with the rest of LAKHIMPUR. This tract is sometimes divided into Upper and Lower Matak.

Mátámurí.—One of the chief rivers of the Chittagong Hill Tracts, Bengal. Rises in the range of mountains dividing Arakan from Chittagong, near the Sangu, to which river the Mátámuri runs parallel for about 67 miles on the other side of a chain of hills, and ultimately falls into the Bay of Bengal. Captain Lewin thus describes the scenery on the Twine Khyoung, one of its tributaries: 'The stream ran briskly in a narrow pebbly bed, between banks that rose nearly perpendicularly, and so high that the sun only came down to us by glints here and there. Enormous tree ferns hung over our heads some 50 feet up, while the straight stems of the *garjan* tree shot up without a branch, like white pillars in a temple; plantains, with their broad drooping fronds of transparent emerald, broke at intervals the dark-green wall of jungle that towered up in the background, and, from some gnarled old forest giant here and there, the long curving creepers threw across the stream a bridge of nature's own making. Sometimes we came upon a recess in the bank of verdure which rose on either hand; and there the tinkling of a cascade would be heard behind the veil, its entry into the stream being marked by a great grey heap of rounded rocks and boulders, tossed about in a way that showed what a sweep the water comes down in the rains. Scarlet dragon-flies and butterflies of purple, gold, and azure flitted like jewels across our path; while silvery fish, streaked with dark-blue bands, flew up the stream before us like flashes of light, as we poled along.'

Matan (*Marttan*).—Ruined temple in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Punjab. Lat. 33° 42′ N., long. 75° 21′ E. It is mentioned in the *Rájátarangiri* (B. 3, v. 462), where it is called Rámápuraswámi. It is a temple in honour of Marttana (the sun), and General Cunningham places its construction at 370 A.D. The temple consists of a lofty central edifice, with a small detached wing on each side, the whole enclosed in a large quadrangular portico of fluted pillars, 220 by 142 feet.

Cunningham calls it a majestic temple, the most striking in size and situation of all the existing remains of Kashmírian grandeur. The ruins stand on a slight eminence, which rises from the western extremity of a tableland between the town of Islámábád and the hills which bound the valley to the east. The existing remains consist of huge figures and columns in massive black marble, embellished with exquisite carving.

Matári.—Municipal town in Hála Deputy Collectorate, Haidarábád (Hyderabad) District, Sind; situated on a slight eminence, in lat. 25° 35′ 30″ N., and long. 68° 28′ 30″ E., 20 miles south from Hála, and 16 miles north of Haidarábád. Pop. (1872), 4920, including 4149 Muhammadans and 729 Hindus. Headquarters of a *táppádár;* contains a *dharmsála*, Government vernacular school, police lines, etc. Municipal revenue (1873-74), £312. Local trade in grain, oil-seeds, cotton, silk, piece-goods, and sugar; its value is estimated at £6000. The transit trade is valued at nearly 1 *lákh* of rupees (say £10,000). Matári is said to have been founded in 1322, and possesses besides a fine *Jamá Masjíd*, now about a century old, the tombs of two saints of renowned sanctity. At these shrines annual fairs are held in September and October, and each is attended by from 2000 to 3000 Muhammadans.

Mataundh.—Town in Bánda District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 5990, chiefly Rájputs. Distant from Bánda 12 miles west. Market on Mondays and Thursdays; trade in tobacco, salt, grain, cotton, and leather. According to tradition, the scene of a battle between Chhatar Sál and a Jain Guru. A Rájput *zamíndár*, named Murli, received some European fugitives from Naugáon during the Mutiny, and obtained as a reward a grant of land with the honorary title of Rájá.

Mátherán.—Hill sanitarium in Tanna District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 18° 58′ 50″ N., and long. 73° 18′ 20″ E., 2460 feet above sea level, within 4 hours of Bombay by rail. The hill was explored in May 1850 by Mr. Hugh Malet, of the Bombay Civil Service, and to him belongs the credit of making its advantages known. Mátherán is delightfully situated on an outlier of the Eastern Gháts, and commands noble views of the level intermediate plain which separates the mountain chain from the sea. The traveller proceeds from Bombay by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway to Nárel Station (53 miles), and thence climbs the hill by palanquin or pony. The road winds upwards through rich forests. The summit, which is of considerable extent, is also thickly wooded, and affords good riding ground. The peculiar charm of Mátherán is its Points. These form, as it were, rocky promontories jutting into mid-air, from which the spectator looks down upon the valleys more than 2000 feet below. In the morning, the mist lies between himself and the plains, and, as it gradually melts before the rising sun, discloses one by one the villages and fields which

it has concealed beneath. Another very striking view is the evening effect from Panorama Point. The level plain extends from the foot of the hill to the broken coast-line, about 40 miles off. The great city of Bombay, with its towers and shipping, lies under the sunset, and the ocean stretches beyond. The rides through the woods have also a special freshness from the sea-breeze; and, although the elevation is not lofty enough to counteract the heats of summer, it suffices to render Mátherán a cool and salubrious retreat for the citizens of Bombay during the spring and autumn months. Houses are generally let from 1st March to 15th June, and from 1st October to 31st December. The conservancy arrangements are good, and the hotel accommodation is on an unpretending but adequate scale. Until within the last thirty years, Mátherán Hill was inhabited solely by wild forest races of non-Aryan origin and predatory habits—Dhangars, Thákurs, and Katkáris. These still linger in the woods, but their little communities are now believed to be dying out. An interesting account of the Hill has been published by J. Y. Smith, M.D. (Edinburgh: Maclachlan & Stewart, 1871).

Mathura. — District and town, North-Western Provinces.—*See* MUTTRA.

Mathura.—Town in Gonda District, Oudh; situated 2 miles north of the Rápti river, 6 miles from Ikauna, and 15 from Balrámpur, with both of which towns it is connected by road. Pop. about 1500. Chief seat of retail trade in the neighbourhood. *Bázár*, with over a hundred shops. The principal buildings are a double-storied brick house, the property of the Mahárájá of Balrámpur, and a lofty Hindu temple. A handsome Muhammadan *dargah*, erected by Nawáb Asif-ud-daulá, is situated about a mile to the north of the village. It is in charge of a *fákír* of peculiar sanctity, who, on the occasion of the annual *Bakr 'Id* festival, receives the donations of several thousand devotees.

Mathwár.—Petty State in the Bhíl Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India. Sparse population of Bhíls. In 1875, the revenue was about £400. The Thákur, Ranjít Sinh, who was born about 1862, is being educated at the Indore Residency School.

Mátiakhar.—Forest reserve in Kámrúp District, Assam, on one of the lowest spurs of the Khási Hills. Area, 2240 acres, or 3·5 square miles. The soil is a sandy loam; the trees are chiefly *sál* (Shorea robusta), but none are of large growth. The timber depôt is at Kuruk-mára, on the Kulsí river.

Matiána. — Fort and village in Keunthal State, Punjab; lies in lat. 31° 11′ N., long. 77° 27′ E. (Thornton), on the route from Simla to Kotgarh, 19 miles north-east of the former station by the winding mountain road. Elevation above sea level, about 8000 feet.

Mátín.—Chiefship to the north of Biláspur District, Central Pro-

vinces. Pop. (1866), 2760, residing in 40 villages; area, 569 square miles. This estate lies entirely in the hill country, and is infested with wild elephants. The chief is a Kunwár. Near Mátín rises the sacred hill called Mátín Deva.

Matlá (or *Ráimatlá*).—River in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. The name given to the united streams of the BIDYADHARI, KARATOYA, and ATHARABANKA, which flow southward through the Sundarbans into the Bay of Bengal, affording the means of navigation for shipping to within 28 miles by railway from Calcutta. The Matlá estuary is about 30 miles east of Ságar Island, and is separated from the Jámirá river by Balchari Island and flats. It is above a league wide at the entrance, the channel leading in a northerly direction. The depths at the entrance are 9 to 10 fathoms; the southern extremity of the land, on the eastern side, is situated in lat. 21° 32′ N., with a shoal bank projecting a considerable distance farther to seaward. The Matlá has several branches at its mouth, the westernmost of which extends to the salt-water lake near Calcutta, and contains never less than 3 fathoms of water. The main stream of the river is easily navigable as far as the town of Matlá or PORT CANNING. Situated about 50 or 60 miles from its mouth.

Matlá.—Town in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. —*See* PORT CANNING.

Mát Noh Jhíl.—North-easterly *tahsíl* of Muttra (Mathurá) District, North-Western Provinces; lying along the east bank of the Jumna (Jamuná), and deriving its name from a considerable swampy lake which exists within its borders. Area, 218 square miles, of which 178 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 100,248; land revenue, £23,698; total Government revenue, £26,195; rental paid by cultivators, £36,621; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 3s. 4¾d.

Ma-toung-da.—Revenue circle in the Mo-gnyo township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. The southern portion lies low, and is subject to inundation during the rains; but towards the north there is an extensive rice plain, and some forest-covered land. The principal varieties of timber found are *cutch* (Acacia catechu), teak, and *hlouk-kyan* (Terminalia macrocarpa). Pop. (1876), 5822; gross revenue, £1695.

Ma-toung-da.—Revenue circle in the Kanoung township, Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma; consists for the most part of undulating and forest-covered country. Now includes the circles of Tsan-rwa and Rwa-ta-ra. Pop. (1876), 3046; gross revenue, £643.

Matra Timba.—One of the petty States in North Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £120; from which tribute of £29 is paid to the British Government, and £7 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Mattod.—Village in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore. Pop. (1871), 1416. The seat of a line of *paligárs*, distinguished for their hereditary beauty and stature. The fort was built in 1710; and the chiefs maintained their independence until 1777. The place is celebrated for its glass-works, at one time more extensive than now. At present only two furnaces are in good repair, built against the inside wall of the fort. All the materials are found in the neighbourhood. They consist of soda, quartz, or compact ironstone, compact specular iron-ore, and copper. The articles made are bangles and wrist-rings for women, in five different colours—black, green, red, blue, and yellow. A full account of the process of manufacture is given in Mr. Rice's *Gazetteer of Mysore and Coorg*, vol. i. pp. 441-444.

Mattra (*Mathurá*).—District and town, North - Western Provinces. —*See* MUTTRA.

Matwád.—Port in Surat District, Bombay; situated 7 miles west by south of Navsári. Average annual value of trade during five years ending 1871-72—imports, £16,173, and exports, £9566.

Mau.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Jhánsi District, North-Western Provinces, intersected by spurs of the Vindhyán range, and much cut up by intrusive portions of the Orchha State. Area, 440 square miles, of which 193 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 104,281; land revenue, £12,388; total Government revenue, £13,749; rental paid by cultivators, £24,765; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 10½d.

Mau.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Bánda District, North-Western Provinces; lying along the south bank of the Jumna (Jamuná), intersected by outlying spurs of the Vindhyán Hills, which here nearly abut upon the river, and crossed by the Jabalpur branch of the East Indian Railway. Area, 237 square miles, of which 147 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 74,625; land revenue, £11,791; total Government revenue, £12,036; rental paid by cultivators, £19,817; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 3⅜d.

Mau.—Town in Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 57′ 10″ N., long. 83° 35′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 11,315, consisting of 6532 Hindus and 4783 Muhammadans. Agricultural centre of purely local importance.

Mau Aimá.—Town in Allahábád District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 41′ 40″ N., long. 81° 58′ 5″ E.; pop. (1872), 6189. Lies in the trans-Gangetic portion of the District, on the road to Partábgarh, 17 miles north of Allahábád.

Ma-ú-beng. — Revenue circle in the Thún-khwa township, Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 4142; gross revenue, £2879.

Ma-ú-beng.—Headquarters of Thún-khwa District, Pegu Division, British Burma. A new town built on low land, the highest portions,

towards the north and east, being barely an inch above the level of high-water mark in the Irawadi during the rains. In the south and west are fisheries, and the ground here for a great part of the year becomes one large swamp. Ma-ú-beng contains court-houses, a small jail, police station, charitable dispensary, and market. Pop. (1877), 1178; local revenue, in addition to the imperial and provincial revenue, £423.

Ma-ú-daing.—Revenue circle in the Meng-dún township, Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 30 square miles; includes Kan-lay and Ma-ú-daing. Products—rice, cotton, cutch, sesamum, tobacco, etc. Pop. (1877), 2411; gross revenue, £335.

Maudhá.—Central eastern *tahsíl* of Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces, consisting chiefly of a level alluvial plain, on the west bank of the river Ken. Area, 231 square miles, of which 143 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 51,820; land revenue, £13,866; total Government revenue, £14,822; rental paid by cultivators, £24,205; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 10⅜d.

Maudhá.—Town in Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Lat. 25° 40′ 30″ N., long. 80° 9′ 25″ E.; pop. (1872), 6025, consisting of 2679 Hindus and 3346 Muhammadans. Founded, according to tradition, by Shaikh Ahmad, a native of Egypt. Tomb of Dalír Khán, slain here in 1730, attracts a considerable number of votaries. Fort built by Bijí Bahádur of Charkhári, on the site of which Alí Bahádur of BANDA afterwards erected a stone fortress, now the nucleus of a separate village. *Tahsíli,* police station (in the fort), Anglo-vernacular school, 5 girls' schools, post office. Three principal mosques; 5 tanks. No manufactures; little trade. During the Mutiny, a body of rebels sent by the Marhattá leader, Bhaskar Ráo, attacked the fort, but were beaten off with the aid of a few men from Charkhári.

Maudhunkhalla (*Modemkhalla*).—Town in Vizagapatam District, Madras. Lat. 18° 55′ N., long. 83° 45′ 30″ E.; pop. (1871), 5671; number of houses, 1050.

Maulmain (or *Moulmein*).—Town and headquarters of Amherst District, and of the Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated on the left bank of the Salwín, at its junction with the Gyaing and Attaran rivers, in lat. 16° 30′ N., long. 97° 38′ E. Immediately to the west is BHILU-GYWON, a large island, which protects the town from the monsoon, but shuts out all sea view. To the north, on the opposite bank of the Salwín, is MARTABAN, once the capital of a kingdom, but now an unimportant hamlet. Low hills, forming the northern extremity of the Toung-gnyo range, run north and south through Maulmain, dividing it into distinct and very dissimilar portions, which touch each other at the northern base of the hills on the bank of the Gyaing. These are crowned at

intervals with pagodas, in various stages of preservation and decay. The town is parcelled out into five 'divisions,' of which four lie to the west; and in this portion are situated the public buildings, the military cantonments, the merchants' offices and warehouses, and the majority of the houses of the European residents. The inhabitants here are almost entirely Europeans, Eurasians, Chinese, and natives of India. The fifth 'division' of Maulmain is behind the hills, in the Attaran valley, and is inhabited mainly by Burmese and Talaings. The total population numbered in 1857, 23,683; in 1878, 54,333, representing almost every nationality. The principal buildings are—Salwín House, originally a private residence, but now the property of the municipality; the hospital; the jail; the Protestant and Roman Catholic churches; the custom-house, and other public offices; the barracks for the garrison of Madras Native infantry. When this part of the Province was ceded by the treaty of Yandabu (1826), Amherst was first designated as the capital of the newly acquired territory, but Maulmain was afterwards chosen as being the best site strategically, and also on account of its being well supplied with water. In a few years, Maulmain, from being a waste, developed into a thriving commercial town. A large trade in teak (of which there are extensive forests in Amherst District) soon sprang up, and for many years timber proved the only article of export. The revenue realized from this source alone, in 1855-56, was £20,635. With the gradual settlement of the country and increase in agriculture, rice and cotton began to be also exported. Besides these, the other staple exports are hides, horns, lead, copper, yellow orpiment and stick-lac. The principal imports are cotton-twist and yarn, cotton and woollen piece-goods, wines, beer and spirits, sugar, and betel-nuts. Salt manufactured in the District holds its own here as it does nowhere else in the Province. Total value of exports (1876-77), £921,379—of imports, £994,296; total duty realized on exports and imports, £35,556. The number of vessels visiting the port in 1875-76 was 1115, with a gross burthen of 521,555 tons. Shipbuilding, commenced in Maulmain as early as 1830, forms an important industry of the town. The municipal revenue amounted in 1877-78 to £11,416; rate of taxation, about 3s. 7d. per head of population. The conservancy system of Maulmain could not be more faulty or dangerous than it is at present. Since this article was written, Maulmain town has been constituted a separate jurisdiction distinct from Amherst District.

Maunagar (or *Kánt*).—Town in Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 29° 3′ 20″ N., long. 78° 40′ 10″ E., 20 miles north-west of Moradábád, and 2 miles east of the Gángan river. Pop. (1872), 7030, consisting of 4001 Hindus and 3029 Muhammadans.

Maundá (*Mounda*).—Village in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 8′ N., and long. 79° 22′ E., on the Kanhán river,

half-way between Nágpur and Bhandára. The surrounding estate belongs to Yaswant Ráo Gújar, who has a fort in the village. Maundá has a large market-place, a Government school-house, and a police office. The population, which exceeds 3000, is chiefly employed in manufacturing cotton cloth.

Mau Ránipur. — Principal commercial town of Jhánsi District, North-Western Provinces, and headquarters of Mau *tahsíl.* Lat. 25° 14′ 40″ N., long. 79° 10′ 45″ E.; pop. (1872), 16,428, consisting of 15,065 Hindus and 1363 Muhammadans. Lies on the Jalaun and Ságar road, 40 miles south-east of Jhánsi. Remarkably picturesque buildings, in the style peculiar to Bundelkhand, with deep eaves between the first and second stories, and hanging balconies of unusual beauty. Trees line many of the streets, and handsome temples ornament the town, the principal being that of the Jains (a numerous and influential body), with two solid spires and several cupolas. Old brick-built fort with bastions overlooks the *bázár*, and contains the *tahsíli*, police station, and post office. Good school. Insufficient water supply; excellent natural drainage. Quite modern commercial importance, the town having risen from the position of a small agricultural village within 100 years, through the influx of merchants from Chhatarpur, seeking relief from the exorbitant demands of the Rájá. Manufacture of *kharna* cloth, exported to all parts of India. Wealthy merchants and bankers. Imports of sugar, English piece-goods, silk, metals, coffee, and numerous other articles from Mírzápur, Nágpur, Háthras, and Cawnpore, valued at £110,000; exports of dyed and undyed cloths, valued at £140,000. The neighbouring village of Ránípur forms part of the municipality, which had a revenue in 1875-76 of £1674; from taxes, £1321, or 1s. 2d. per head of population (23,123) within municipal limits.

Mauránwán.—*Parganá* in Unao District, Oudh. The most easterly *parganá* in the District, separated from Rái Bareli by the Sái river. Soil good, producing excellent rice crops, and well wooded. Pop. (1869), 90,464, dwelling in 111 villages; average density, 523 persons per square mile. Area, 173 square miles, or 110,538 acres, held as follows: —*Tálukdárí*, 69,363 acres; *zamíndárí*, 15,355 acres; *pattidárí*, 25,820 acres. Land revenue, £12,502, equal to an average rate of 2s. 3d. per acre of total area. The present *tálukdár*, Rájá Gaurí Sankar, a Báis Kshattriya, received his title and estates (which had escheated from previous members of the family) for loyal and faithful service during the Mutiny.

Mauránwán.—Town in Unao District, Oudh, and headquarters of the *parganá* of the same name; situated 6 miles from Púrwa, and 26 from Unao town. Lat. 26° 25′ 45″ N., long. 80° 55′ 30″ E.; pop. (1869), 7997, of whom Hindus number 6185, and Muhammadans, 1812. Noted for

its jewellery and carpentry work. Two mosques and 9 Hindu temples. Bi-weekly markets, attended by about 2000 persons. At an annual fair, sales are made to the extent of about £7000. Police station, *sarái*, school. The town, which is surrounded by groves of mango and *mahuá* trees, is connected by road with Unao and Rái Bareli, and with Lucknow by a cart track leading to the main road.

Maureswar.—Village in Bírbhúm District, Bengal, and head-quarters of a *tháná*; situated in lat. 23° 59′ 5″ N., and long. 87° 48′ 20″ E., on the road from Surí to Murshidábád. The inhabitants are principally engaged in rearing silk-worms, and in silk-spinning and weaving.

Mávalikara.—Chief town of the Mávalikara District, Travancore State, Madras; situated in lat. 9° 14′ 32″ N., and long. 76° 35′ 11″ E., 25 miles north of Quilon, and 8½ miles from the coast. Pop. (1871), 4468; number of houses, 950. It bears signs of having once been a place of some consequence; and has a large and regular fort, built of red stone and mud, about 2 miles in circumference, with 24 bastions, each side having a gateway in the centre. The interior is laid out in neat streets, crossing at right angles, and lined with the gardens and houses of the Nairs, who form a considerable section of the population. In the centre of the fort stands an ancient pagoda. On the east side, are several buildings used as public offices; on the south is a spacious *Kotáram* where some members of the present Rájá's family reside; towards the north-east, a short distance from the fort, runs a long street of houses, inhabited by Syrian Christians, who have a church at the eastern extremity.

Mawái.—Town in Unao District, Oudh. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 3802, and Muhammadans, 193; total, 3995, residing in 847 houses. A place of little importance, with no manufactures or trade.

Mawái Maholára.—*Parganá* in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Rudauli and Basoṛhi, on the east by Khán-dánsa in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, on the south by the Gumti river, and on the west by the Kalyáni. Area, 71 square miles, or 45,039 acres, of which 23,897 acres are cultivated. Pop. (1869), Hindus, 38,884, and Muhammadans, 3971; total, 42,855, dwelling in 51 villages and 8923 houses; average density, 203 persons per square mile. Of the 51 villages, 46 are held under *zamíndárí* tenure, 4 under *pattidárí*, and only 1 under *tálukdárí*. Government land revenue, £5621.

Mawána (or *Mawána Kalán*).—Town in Meerut (Mírath) District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 6714, consisting of 3512 Hindus and 3202 Muhammadans. Lies in lat. 29° 6′ N., long. 77° 57′ 55″ E., on the Doáb upland, 16 miles north-east of Meerut (Mírath), in the midst of country watered by the Ganges Canal. Agricultural town; bi-weekly market; *tahsíli*, post office, police station, village school,

sarái. Large brick-built tank; ruins of another, on whose bank stands a handsome old temple. Pools of water surround the town, and fever prevails after the rains.

Máyakonda. — Village in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore. Lat. 14° 17′ 15″ N., long. 76° 7′ 25″ E.; pop. (1871), 1482. The scene of a decisive battle, fought in 1748 between the *paligár* of Chitaldrúg and the confederate forces of Bednúr, Ráidurga, Harpanhalli, and Savanúr. The *paligár* was utterly defeated and himself killed, and his ally Chanda Sáhib, the claimant to the Nawábship of Arcot, whose cause was advocated by Dupleix, was taken prisoner. In the neighbourhood is some cotton cultivation.

Máyani.—Town in Satára District, Bombay.—*See* MAINI.

Máyapur.—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal; situated in lat. 22° 26′ 15″ N., and long. 88° 10′ 50″ E., a short distance below Achipur, on the Húglí. There is a powder magazine here, where all ships passing up the river are compelled to land any powder they may have on board.

Ma-ya-tsen. — Revenue circle in Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma; lies on the north shore of Kyouk-hpyú harbour, and consists of numerous islands. Area, 45 square miles; pop. (1876), 2558; gross revenue (1876-77), £648.

Máyavaram (*Mayúr*, 'a peacock').—Municipal town in Tanjore District, Madras, and headquarters of a divisional officer; situated in lat. 11° 6′ 20″ N., and long. 79° 41′ 50″ E., on the banks of the Káveri (Cauvery). A railway station, and place of pilgrimage. Pop. (1871), 22,579; number of houses, 3265. Municipal revenue, £1830; incidence of taxation, 9¼d. per head.

Ma-yen-za-ya.—Revenue circle in Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma; stretches east from the Pegu Yomas to the new Pegu and Tsit-toung Canal. Hilly and forest-covered in the west; to the east extends an extensive grassy plain intersected by numerous streams, and for the most part under water during the rains. Several valuable fisheries. Principal villages, Pyeng-bún-gyí and Bhúra-ga-le. Revenue (1877-78), £4172; area under cultivation, 18,154 acres.

Mayo Mines.—Extensive salt mines in Jhílam District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 39′ 30″ N., long. 73° 3′ E. The mineral occurs in the chain of hills known as the SALT RANGE, the beds cropping out from the red marls and sandstones of the Devonian group, on the southern escarpment of the hills. They run throughout the whole length of the system in layers of considerable thickness, sometimes standing out in the form of solid salt cliffs, as at KALABAGH on the Indus. The Mayo Mines—so called after the Viceroy in 1870—are at Kheura, a few miles northeast of Pind Dádan Khán. Excavations existed upon the spot as far back as the reign of Akbar. Under Síkh rule, the salt was worked at

each available spot; but after annexation, the British Government restricted the number of mines, and took up the working as a source of State revenue. In 1869-70, owing to the wasteful manner in which the extraction had been previously carried on, the salt beds were made over to the care of the Imperial Customs Department, and in the following year an experienced engineer was placed in charge of the Mayo Mines. The salt occurs in inexhaustible masses as a solid rock, embedded in strata of brick-red gypsum. A wire-rope tramway leads from the mouth of the mines to the bank of the Jhelum (Jhílam) river, and across it to the great salt depôt at MIANI in Sháhpur District. The miners suffer much from goitre and other diseases incidental to their occupation. Gross revenue of the Mayo Mines in 1871-72, £296,589.

Ma-yú.—River in Arakan, British Burma; rises in the hills near the northern boundary of Akyab District, and flows with a general northerly and southerly direction into the Bay of Bengal to the north-west of Akyab Island, between the Naaf and Kú-la-dan rivers. Its mouth is about 3 miles broad, but entrance is rendered dangerous by numerous rocks and shoals. The passage used by native boats is in-shore on the northern side.

Mazagon.—Northern suburb of Bombay city, noteworthy as containing the docks and workshops of the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company. Lat. 18° 56′ N., long. 72° 53′ E. From their pier, the Company sends on mail days a small steamer with homeward-bound passengers. There is a large Portuguese population, with a considerable sprinkling of Europeans. Two churches, one Protestant and the other Catholic; also a Catholic school.

Mechi.—River of Bengal, rising under the Rangbang spur in the Singálilá range on the frontier of Nepál. This range forms the watershed between the Mechi in Dárjíling District, and the Jangbá in Nepál. The Mechi forms the western boundary of Dárjíling District from its source, flowing south till it passes into Purniah. Banks sloping and well cultivated; bed sandy in the plains, and stony in the hills. Fordable throughout the year, except after heavy floods.

Meeanee.—Village and Battle-field in Haidarábád District, Sind.—*See* MIANI.

Meeanee.—Municipal town in Hushiárpur District, Punjab.—*See* MIANI.

Meeanee. — Municipal town in Sháhpur District, Punjab.—*See* MIANI.

Meean Meer (*Mián Mír*).—Cantonment in Lahore District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 13,757, consisting of 3046 Hindus, 4181 Muhammadans, 336 Síkhs, and 6194 'others.' Lies in lat. 31° 31′ 15″ N., and long. 74° 25′ 15″ E., 3 miles east of the civil station of Lahore, the troops having been removed hither in 1851-52 from Anarkalli (in Lahore) on account of

the unhealthiness of the latter site. Drearily situated in an open and arid plain, originally bare of trees, but now planted with avenues along the roadsides. The station has always been conspicuously unhealthy.

Meerut (*Mirath*). — Division under a Commissioner in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 27° 38′ and 30° 57′ N. lat., and between 77° 7′ and 78° 42′ E. long., and comprising the 6 Districts of DEHRA DUN, SAHARANPUR, MUZAFFARNAGAR, MEERUT, BULANDSHAHR, and ALIGARH, each of which see separately. Area of Meerut Division (according to Parliamentary Abstract, 1878), 11,131 square miles; pop. (1872), 4,977,173.

Meerut (or more correctly, *Mirath*).—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 28° 28′ 15″ and 29° 18′ N. lat., and between 77° 10′ 30″ and 78° 14′ E. long. Area (according to Parliamentary Abstract, 1878), 2360 square miles; population (1878), 1,276,104. Meerut is a District in the Division of the same name. It is bounded on the north by Muzaffarnagar; on the west by the Jumna (Jamuná) river; on the south by Bulandshahr; and on the east by the Ganges. The administrative headquarters are at the city of MEERUT.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Meerut forms a portion of the long and narrow plain lying between the Ganges and the Jumna, and known accordingly as the Doáb ('Two Rivers'). Like most other Districts of that fertile plateau, it stretches in an almost unbroken level from one great river to the other, with only a gentle slope from north to south. The average elevation above the sea is 730 feet. Though well wooded in places, and abundantly supplied with mango groves, there are but few patches of jungle or waste land to break the general expanse of cultivated soil. Sandy ridges run along the low watersheds which separate the minor channels, and some uneven ground is to be met with in the sunken and shifting beds of the boundary rivers themselves; but with these exceptions, the whole District is one continuous expanse of careful and prosperous tillage. The barren *úsar* plains, covered with a white saline efflorescence, which prove so great a pest in other regions of the Doáb, are here comparatively rare. The eastern portion of the District, however, near the banks of the Ganges, is characterised by the presence of rolling sand-dunes, which continually change their position before the prevailing wind. The present fertility of Meerut is largely due to the system of irrigation canals, which intersect it in every direction. The Eastern Jumna Canal runs through the whole length of the District, and supplies the rich tract between the Jumna and its affluent the Hindan, with a network of distributary streams. The main branch of the Ganges Canal passes across the centre of the plateau in a sweeping curve, and waters the midland tract. The Anúpshahr branch supplies irrigation to the Ganges slope.

Besides these natural and artificial channels, the country is everywhere cut up by small water-courses, most of which are dry, except in the rainy season. The Búrh Ganga, or ancient bed of the Ganges, lies at some distance from the modern stream; and on its bank stood the abandoned city of Hastinápur, the legendary capital of the Pandavas. Few remains now mark the site of this Indian Troy, which is said to have been deserted many centuries before the Christian era, owing to the encroachments of the river. But the mythical history of the *Mahábhárata* centres in the town and its neighbourhood, thus giving a peculiar interest to the whole tract in which it stands. The city of Meerut itself, which is also of great though not of equal antiquity, is placed in the very centre of the District, and is connected by railway and road with Delhi, and with all parts of the surrounding country. It has a large European quarter, with extensive cantonments, and a strong military establishment. The District as a whole, however, is rather agricultural than urban, and the progress of irrigation has made it one of the richest in the Doáb.

History.—No portion of India has a history extending back to so remote a period as the country around Meerut. Even at the early time when the *Mahábhárata* was composed, Hastinápur was already an ancient city, the capital of the Lunar race; and after the great war which forms the main theme of that poem, it was ruled by a long line of the descendants of Parikshit, whose annals are given in the *Vishnu Purána.* Passing on from these heroic ages to the first dawn of authentic history, we learn from the evidence of a pillar, now standing at Delhi, that the town of Meerut was inhabited in the 3d century before Christ; and the discovery of Buddhist remains leaves no doubt of its great antiquity. But as little reliance can be placed here as elsewhere on any details previous to the first Musalmán invasion. It is probable that until the 11th century of our era, the District was mainly in the hands of predatory native tribes, such as the Játs and Dors; and Hardatta, the Dor Rájá of Baran, in the adjoining District of BULANDSHAHR, seems to have had a fort at Meerut. He was attacked, according to some accounts, by Mahmúd of Ghazní in 1017, and forced to embrace the faith of Islám, besides paying a large sum of money as tribute. The first undoubted Muhammadan invasion was that of Kutab-ud-dín, the general of Muhammad Ghori, in 1191, when the city of Meerut was taken, and all the Hindu temples were converted into mosques. Under succeeding Sultáns we hear little of the District, which may therefore be considered to have escaped any notable misfortune, until the Mughal invasion in 1398. Timúr swooped down upon Meerut with more than ordinary Mughal barbarity, and was met with equal Hindu obstinacy. At the fort of Loni, many of the Rájputs burnt down their own houses, with their women and children within, and then

went out to sell their lives as dearly as they could. After the capture, Timúr ordered the massacre of all the Hindu prisoners in his camp, whom he himself represents as numbering 100,000 persons. He then went on to the sack of Delhi, and returned to the town of Meerut, then ruled by an Afghán chief named Iliás. Timúr first made his approaches by mining, and on the second day carried the walls by storm. All the males were put to the sword, and the fortifications and houses of the Hindus razed to the ground. Thence his army passed northward along the two great rivers, taking every fort, town, and village they came to. The firm establishment of the great Mughal dynasty in the 16th century, and the immediate neighbourhood of their court, gave Meerut a period of internal tranquillity and royal favour. The valley of the Jumna became a favourite hunting resort for the imperial family and their great officers. Pleasure gardens and game preserves were established in the low-lying tract just opposite Delhi; while it was for the purpose of watering one of these that the Eastern Jumna Canal was first designed. After the death of Aurangzeb, Meerut was exposed to the same horrors of alternate Síkh and Marhattá invasions which devastated the other Provinces of the Upper Doáb; while the Játs and the Rohillás occasionally interposed, to glean the remnant of plunder which remained from the greater and more fortunate hordes. From 1707 till 1775, Meerut was the scene of one perpetual strife; and it was only rescued from anarchy by the exertions of a European military adventurer, Walter Reinhardt, one of the many soldiers of fortune who were tempted to try their destinies in Upper India during the troubled decline of the Delhi dynasty. Reinhardt established himself at Sardhána, one of the northern *parganás* of Meerut; and on his death in 1778, left his domains to his widow, generally known as the Begam Samru, from the assumed name of her husband. This remarkable woman was a Musalmáni of Arab descent, and originally followed the trade of a dancing girl. After her marriage with Reinhardt, she was baptized into the Roman Catholic Church, to which she became a considerable benefactress. Meanwhile, the southern portion of the District still remained in its anarchic condition under Marhattá rule, until the fall of DELHI in 1803, when all the country between the Jumna and the Ganges was ceded by Sindhia to the British. The Begam, who had up till that time given active assistance to Sindhia, thereupon made submission to the new Government, to which she remained constantly faithful till her death in 1836. The *parganás* now constituting the District of Meerut were at first divided amongst the surrounding Districts, but were afterwards attached to Saháranpur. In 1818, Meerut was formed into a separate District, which was further subdivided in 1824 by the removal of Bulandshahr and Muzaffarnagar. With the exception of these administrative

changes, Meerut has few historical incidents to show during the early British period. But it has been rendered memorable by the active part which it took in the Mutiny of 1857, being the place where the first outbreak occurred. From the beginning of the year, disquieting rumours had been afloat amongst the native troops, and the greased-cartridge fiction had spread widely through their ranks. In April, a trooper named Brijmohán informed his comrades that he had used the new cartridges, and that all the troops would have to do so shortly; but within a few days, Brijmohán's house was set on fire, and from that time acts of incendiarism became common. On the 9th of May, some men of the 3d Bengal cavalry, who had refused to use the cartridges, were condemned to ten years' imprisonment. Next day, Sunday, May the 10th, their comrades took the fatal determination to mutiny; and at 5 P.M., the massacre of Europeans in the city began. The subsequent events belong rather to imperial than to local history, and could not be adequately summed up in a brief *résumé.* It must suffice to say, that throughout the Mutiny the cantonments remained in the hands of the British forces, and the District was on the whole kept fairly clear from rebels. Meerut was more than once threatened by Walidád Khán, the rebellious chieftain of Málágarh in Bulandshahr District, but his demonstrations were never very serious. Indeed, it is a noticeable fact that the very city where the Mutiny broke out, and where the first massacre took place, was yet held by a small body of Europeans, surrounded by hundreds of thousands of disaffected natives, under the very shadow of Delhi, from beginning to end of that desperate struggle.

Population.—The first enumeration of the people which can be employed for purposes of comparison, was that taken in the year 1853, all previous statistics being rendered useless by subsequent administrative changes. The population was then returned at 1,135,072, giving a density of 516 persons to the square mile. At the Census of 1865, the number was stated as 1,211,281, or 513 persons to the square mile. In 1872, the population numbered 1,273,914, or 541 persons to the square mile. The District then contained 1573 villages, and 268,650 houses. These numbers show 0·7 villages and 114 houses to the square mile, 811 inhabitants to each village, and 4·7 persons to each house. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 685,404, and females, 588,510; proportion of males, 53·8 per cent. The excessive proportion of males is doubtless due to the prevalence of female infanticide; but the Act of 1870 has been put in force in certain villages of the District, and is working well for the suppression of this practice. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—236,452 boys and 191,132 girls; total children, 427,584, or 33·56 per cent. of the population. As regards religious distinctions, Meerut is

one of the Doáb Districts where the followers of Islám muster strongest, there being 991,226 Hindus and 281,857 Musalmáns. These figures show a percentage of 77·8 and 22·2 respectively; or, roughly speaking, 2 Muhammadans to every 7 Hindus. Of the four great classes into which the Hindus are divided, the Bráhmans are numerous and important. In 1872, they numbered 109,804, and held 75 villages as *zamíndárs.* By far the greater portion of them belong to the Gaur division of the sacred class. The Rájputs are numerically a small body, amounting in all to 55,033; but they enjoy great social distinction as landowners. The Hindu Rájputs are *zamíndárs* in 194 villages; while Musalmán families of the same stock hold 48 more. Their principal subdivisions in Meerut are the Chauháns, Gahlots, and Tuárs. The third great class, that of the Banias or traders, is returned at 69,942. As in so many other Districts, they now hold considerable landed property, being *zamíndárs* of 136 villages. The great mass of the population belongs to those lower tribes classed together in the Census reports as 'other castes.' These show an aggregate of 756,447, or 76·2 per cent. of the total Hindu inhabitants. The Chamárs are the most numerous tribe, amounting to 197,273 persons, for the most part agricultural labourers. The Játs, who are returned at 145,514, are the most industrious and enterprising class of cultivators both in Meerut itself and throughout the Division, and they have influenced the character of the neighbouring country more than any other caste. They hold no fewer than 488 villages in this District. The Gujárs, a tribe of unsettled habits, having a taste for jungle life and pastoral occupations, with which they are said to combine a little plundering and cattle-lifting, number 60,350, and hold 209 villages. Their hereditary character of robber clans is passing away under the influence of canal irrigation and agricultural improvement. The other chief tribes are the Khákrobs (50,107 souls), Tágas (43,062), and Kahárs (35,985). The Musalmáns, who are for the most part the descendants of converted Hindus, hold altogether 337 villages in Meerut. The District also contained 2149 European residents in 1872, and 142 Eurasians. The number of native Christians is returned at 730; many of them are Roman Catholics, who were converted in the household of Begam Samru. The Census of 1872 showed an agricultural population of 537,230 persons. There are 15 towns in the District with a population exceeding 5000—namely, MEERUT, 81,386; HAPUR, 14,544; SARDHANA, 12,466; GARHMUKHTESAR, 7962; BAGPAT, 7367; GHAZIABAD, 7365; SHAHDARA, 7257; BARO, 7056; MAWANA, 6864; PILKHUA, 6239; KHEKARA, 6045; TIKRI, 5698; KIRTHAL, 5651; DASNA, 5605; CHAPRAULI, 5594.

Agriculture.—Meerut is one of the most flourishing and best tilled Districts of the Doáb. Out of a total area of 1,505,824 acres, as many

as 1,043,515 acres are under cultivation; and of these, considerably more than one-half are irrigated by artificial means. At the beginning of the present century, the poorer crops, such as millets and pulses, formed the staple agricultural products; but these have now been largely abandoned for the superior cereals, sugar-cane, cotton, and indigo. The year is divided into the usual *rabí* and *kharíf* harvests. In irrigated land, about one-third of each holding lies fallow for one of these seasons; but in unirrigated land, only a single crop a year is produced from each plot. There are no statistics as to the area occupied by the different staples. The average out-turn of grain is from 8½ to 10 *maunds*, or from 6 to 8 cwts. per acre, valued at £1, 16s.; that of cotton is 3½ *maunds*, or 2½ cwts. per acre, valued at £1, 6s. Manure is very generally applied, and the supply is ample. Irrigation is carried almost to its utmost profitable limit, 291,395 acres having been watered from wells, 12,255 acres from tanks, and 280,179 acres from canals in 1871. There was thus a total irrigated area of 583,829 acres, leaving a margin of only 466,224 acres dependent upon the precarious rainfall; and it is doubtful whether any good results would ensue from supplying the sandy tracts which compose the latter portion with a flush of water. The condition of the agricultural labourers has greatly improved of late years; from being mere serfs attached to the soil, they have risen to the position of an independent peasantry. Artisans and workmen in the towns have also bettered their condition, though in the villages they are less well off than formerly. About one-half the soil is cultivated by the proprietors themselves; the remainder is almost equally divided between tenants-at-will and those with rights of occupancy. Rents are paid in money, and depend greatly on the facility of irrigation; the best canal-watered lands bring in as much as 18s. 10d. per acre, while 'dry' lands let at as little as 2s. 5½d. per acre; the average of all soils may be taken at about 8s. Wages and prices are both greatly on the increase. Coolies earn 133 per cent. more than the ordinary rates in 1858. Agricultural labourers are chiefly paid in kind; when paid in specie, they get from Rs. 3 to Rs. 4, or 6s. to 8s. a month. Bricklayers receive from 6d. to 7½d.; carpenters and blacksmiths, 7½d.; and unskilled artisans, 3d. to 3¾d. per diem. In 1876, prices ruled as follows:—Wheat, 26 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 3¾d. per cwt.; barley, 33 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 4¾d. per cwt.; gram, 25 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 5¾d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—The District of Meerut may be considered safe from the extreme miseries of famine, so far as human calculation can foresee, owing to its very perfect system of irrigation, and the completeness of its communications by road and railway. During the last great drought in 1868-69, Meerut was able not only to supply its

own domestic wants, but also to export an amount of grain estimated at about half a million of *maunds*, or 360,000 cwts., for the relief of the distressed Districts. Though the quantity of food-stuffs thus abstracted naturally caused a great rise in prices, there was no conspicuous suffering in Meerut; and the people showed their comparative security by the fact that they did not apply for employment at the relief works experimentally established by Government in various local centres. The highest prices reached during the scarcity were quoted in December 1869, when wheat sold at 10 *sers* the rupee, or 11s. 2¼d. per cwt., and rice at 9 *sers* the rupee, or 12s. 5¼d. per cwt. Floods occasionally cause damage in the low-lying lands near the great boundary rivers, but their extent is inconsiderable.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The exports of Meerut consist mainly of the raw produce of the country; grain, cotton, and indigo being the chief items. The imports are English hardware, Manchester goods, tobacco, drugs, and spices. The manufactures are few and of merely local importance, with the exception of the indigo dye, which is produced in very large quantities. Meerut and Gháziábád are the principal commercial centres, but the sugar trade is concentrated at Bágpat. The District is admirably supplied with means of communication by which its surplus agricultural produce can be exchanged for the manufactured articles of other regions. Besides the great water-ways of the Ganges, the Jumna, and the navigable canals, the East Indian Railway enters the District on the south, and has its terminus at Gháziábád, whence a branch line runs to Delhi; while the Punjab and Delhi Railway continues the central trunk line past Meerut city and cantonments into the District of Muzaffarnagar, having a total length of 57 miles within the District, with four stations. In addition to these great connecting trunks, the District has 194 miles of 'first-class' and 218 miles of 'second-class' roads, the former being metalled and the latter bridged throughout. There are 13 printing presses in the District, 4 of which are in the cantonments. In 1876, 6 newspapers were printed in Urdu at native presses in Meerut—namely, the *Lawrence Gazette*, *Jalwatúr*, *Muir Gazette*, *Najm-ul-Akbar*, *Akbar Alam*, and *Meerut Gazette*. The *Jagat Samáchar* is printed in Hindi.

Administration.—In 1804, the total revenue of the District was £25,074, and the expenditure, £14,110. By 1860, the revenue had risen to £245,948, while the expenditure amounted to £113,675. In 1870, the receipts were returned at £320,502, of which £211,810, or nearly two-thirds, was derived from the land tax; while the expenditure stood at £158,808, or not quite one-half the revenue. The principal items of receipt, besides land tax, are canal collections, excise, and stamps. In 1876, the District was in charge of 4 covenanted civilians, and contained 17 magisterial and 15 civil courts. In 1873,

the regular police numbered 1469 men of all ranks, maintained at a cost of £16,167 per annum, being 1 policeman to every 867 inhabitants and to every 1·6 square mile. This force was supplemented by 2600 village watchmen or *chaukídárs*, the cost of whose maintenance amounted to £9360, being 1 watchman to every 401 inhabitants. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 4069 men, being 1 man to every 313 inhabitants and every 0·57 square mile; and the sum expended upon the establishment was £25,527, or 4⅝d. per head of the population. In the same year, 3914 persons were convicted for all offences within the District, being 1 conviction to every 325 persons. Meerut contains 2 jails, one of which is central, while the other is special to the District. The central jail contained an average daily number of 1329 prisoners in 1870; the average cost per prisoner being £4, 15s. 9⅛d., while the average earnings of each inmate were 19s. 11½d. The District jail contained 524 prisoners; the cost per prisoner was £3, 11s., and the average earnings, 2s. 11⅛d. Education is making steady advances. In 1860, there were 413 schools, with a total of 7567 pupils, maintained at a cost of £3336. By 1870, while the number of schools had declined to 360, their increased efficiency was shown by the return of pupils, which stood at 7919; and the cost of their maintenance had risen to £5363. In 1875, the number of schools had increased to 416, the pupils numbered 9616, and the total cost was £5954. The District is divided into 6 *tahsíls* and 16 *parganás*, with an aggregate in 1870 of 2046 estates, owned by 94,208 registered proprietors or coparceners; the average land revenue paid by each estate being £88, 4s. 4⅝d., and that contributed by each coparcener, £1, 18s. 3¾d. There are 7 municipal towns in the District—namely, MEERUT, GHAZIABAD, BAGPAT, BAROT, SHAHDARA, HAPUR, and PILKHUA. In 1875-76, their aggregate income amounted to £11,184, and their expenditure to £10,420; the incidence of municipal taxation was at the rate of 1s. 2⅞d. per head of their population.

Medical Aspects.—The comparatively high latitude and elevated position of Meerut make it one of the healthiest Districts in the plains of India. From November to March, the weather is cool and invigorating, hoar-frost being frequently found in January at an early hour of the day. The hot westerly winds begin in April, and the rains set in about the end of June; during their continuance, the weather is sultry and exhausting. Mean temperature—January, 57° F.; February, 67°; March, 73°; April, 82°; May, 86°; June, 87°; July, 84°; August, 84°; September, 85°; October, 79°; November, 69°; December, 59° F. The average rainfall was 29·5 inches in 1867-68; 17·3 inches in 1868-69; 17·8 in 1869-70; 35·7 in 1870-71; and 34·5 in 1871-72. The only endemic disease in the District is malarial fever; but small-

pox and cholera occasionally visit it as epidemics. The number of deaths recorded in 1874 was 34,177, of which 28,910 were due to fever. The death-rate was 26·82 per thousand.

Meerut (*Mírath*).—Central northern *tahsíl* of Meerut District, North-Western Provinces, consisting of a level cultivated plain, watered by the Ganges Canal, and traversed by the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. Area, 366 square miles, of which 271 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 274,899; land revenue, £41,353; total Government revenue, £45,495; rental paid by cultivators, £88,888; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 3s. 6⅝d.

Meerut (*Mírath*).—Municipal city, military cantonment, and administrative headquarters of Meerut District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), exclusive of the military, 81,386—namely, 47,606 Hindus, 33,532 Muhammadans, and 248 Christians. Sixth city in population of the North-Western Provinces. Situated in lat. 29° 0′ 41″ N., and long. 77° 45′ 3″ E., about half-way between the Ganges and the Jumna, distant 25 miles east of the former and 29 miles west of the latter. Approached by the Grand Trunk Road, and Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, which has stations at the city and cantonments. The city proper lies south of the cantonments, and was originally surrounded by a wall and ditch, pierced with nine gates, eight of which possess considerable antiquity. Though a very ancient town, dating back as far as the period of the Buddhist Emperor Asoka (one of whose monolithic columns, originally erected here, now stands on the Ridge at Delhi), Meerut owes its principal importance to its selection by the British Government as the site of a great military station. In 1805, it is mentioned as 'a ruined depopulated town, and a place of no trade.' In 1806, cantonments were first established; and the population rose rapidly to 29,014 in 1847, and 82,035 in 1853. The subsequent slight decline may probably be attributed to the Mutiny, which first broke out in this city, 10th May 1857 (*see* MEERUT DISTRICT). Amongst the antiquarian remains may be mentioned—the Suráj Kúnd, or 'monkey tank,' constructed in 1714, and surrounded by numerous small temples, sanctuaries, and *sati* pillars; the Dargah of Sháh Pír, a fine structure of red sandstone, erected about 1620 by Núr Jahán, wife of the Emperor Jahángír; the Jamá Masjíd, or 'chief mosque,' built in 1019 by Hassan Mahdi, Wazír of Mahmúd of Ghazní, and repaired by Humáyun, near which the remains of a Buddhist temple have recently come to light; and the mausoleums of Abu Muhammad Kamboh (1658), Sálar Masáúd Ghází (1194), and Abu Yar Khán (1577). Most of the streets have a poor appearance, due to the hasty manner in which they were erected. The cantonments stand north of the city, at a little distance, and contain 5 *bázárs*. The Meerut church, completed in 1821, forms their most

remarkable building, having a handsome high spire, which can be seen from the Himálayas. There are also a Roman Catholic church and mission chapel, an asylum for the relief of Europeans and Christians in distress, and a club. The Mall is one of the finest drives in India. In 1875, the garrison consisted of 2 batteries of horse artillery, 2 batteries of field artillery, 1 regiment of European cavalry, 1 of European infantry, 1 of Native cavalry, and 1 of Native infantry. Meerut forms the military headquarters of a Division, comprising the garrisons at Rúrki, Landaur, Dehra, and Delhi. The health of the city and cantonments, though good, has apparently suffered from the rise of water level due to the Ganges Canal. The town possesses considerable trade, but cannot be regarded as a great commercial centre, being mainly employed in ministering to the wants of the troops and European residents. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £6867; from taxes, £3558, or 1s. 4⅜d. per head of population (51,991) within municipal limits.

Meghásani ('*The Seat of Clouds*').—One of the chief mountain peaks in the Native State of Morbhanj, Bengal. Lat. 21° 37′ 58″ N., long. 86° 23′ 30″ E.; height, 3824 feet.

Meghna.—The great estuary of the Bengal Delta, which conveys to the sea the main volume of the waters both of the GANGES and the BRAHMAPUTRA. The name is properly applied only to the channel of the old Brahmaputra, from Bhairab *bázár* downwards, after it has received the Surmá or Barák from Sylhet; but some maps mark the headwaters of the Meghna as a small stream meandering through the centre of Maimansinh District, and joining the Brahmaputra near Bhairab *bázár*. At the present time, the main streams of the Brahmaputra or JAMUNA and of the Ganges or PADMA unite at GOALANDA, and enter the estuary of the Meghna opposite Chándpur. The Meghna proper, throughout its entire course, which runs almost due south, constitutes an important political boundary between the two halves of Eastern Bengal. On the right or west bank, proceeding down stream, lie the Districts of Maimansinh, Dacca, Farídpur, and Bákarganj; on the left or east, the Districts of Tipperah and Noákhálí. It nowhere flows within clearly defined banks; and it enters the sea by four principal mouths, enclosing the three great islands of DAKSHIN SHAHBAZPUR, HATIA, and SANDWIP. Its general characteristics are everywhere the same—a mighty rolling river, of great depth and turbidness, sometimes split up into half a dozen channels by sandbanks of its own formation, sometimes spreading out into a wide expanse of water which the eye cannot see across. It is everywhere subject to tidal action, and exhibits the phenomenon of the 'bore' on a grand scale. It is navigable by native boats of the largest burthen, and also by river steamers all the year through; but the navigation is difficult and sometimes dangerous.

At low tide, the bed is obstructed by shifting sandbanks and by 'snags' or trees stuck fast in the bottom. When the tide is high, or when the river is in flood, and especially when the monsoon is blowing, the surface often becomes too boisterous for heavy-laden river craft to float in safety. The most favourable season for navigation is between November and February; but even in those months the native boatman fears to continue his voyage after nightfall. Alluvion and diluvion are constantly taking place, especially along the seaboard, where the antagonistic forces of river and ocean are ever engaged in the process of land-making. In Noákháli District, the mainland is said to have advanced seawards 4 miles within twenty-three years; while the islands fringing the mouth are annually being cut away and re-deposited in fresh shapes. For some years past, the Meghna has shown a tendency to shift its main channel gradually towards the west.

The tidal phenomena of the Meghna surpass those of any other Indian river. The regular rise of the tide is from 10 to 18 feet; and at springs, or at every full and new moon, the sea rushes up in a single wave, known as the 'bore.' On the Meghna, the 'bore' is no mere spectacle for admiration, but a justly dreaded danger to boatmen. It may be witnessed in its greatest development at the time of the biennial equinoxes, when navigation is sometimes impeded for days together, especially when the wind blows from the south. Before anything can be seen, a noise like thunder is heard in the far distance seawards, which has probably given rise to the strange story of 'the Barisál guns.' Then the tidal wave is suddenly beheld, advancing like a wall topped with foam, of the height of nearly 20 feet, and moving at the rate of 15 miles an hour. In a few minutes, all is over; and the brimming river has at once changed from ebb to flood tide. A greater danger than the 'bore' is the 'storm-wave,' which occasionally sweeps up the Meghna in the wake of cyclones. These 'storm-waves,' also, are most liable to occur at the break of the monsoons in May and October. In the cyclone of May 1867, the island of Hátia was entirely submerged by a wave which is estimated to have reached a height of 40 feet. But the greatest of these disasters within the memory of man is that which occurred on the night of 31st October 1876. Towards evening of that day, the wind had gradually risen till it blew a gale. Suddenly, at about midnight in some places and nearer dawn in others, the roar of the 'bore' was heard, drowning the noises of the storm. Two and three waves came on in succession, flooding in one moment the entire country, and sweeping before them every living thing that was not lucky enough to reach a point of vantage. The destruction of human life on that memorable night is credibly estimated at 100,000 souls in the mainland portion of Noákháli District and the two islands of Sandwíp and Hátia, or about 19 per cent. of the total population. As usually

happens in such cases, the mortality subsequently caused by cholera and a train of dependent diseases, equalled that due directly to drowning. A full account of this calamity will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. vi., Appendix.

Mehar.—Division and Sub-District of Shikárpur Collectorate, Sind; lying between 26° 52′ and 27° 26′ 30″ N. lat., and between 67° 11′ and 68° 15′ E. long. Area, 1528 square miles; population (1872), 142,305. Bounded on the north by Lárkána; on the east by the Indus; south by the Sehwan Division of Karáchi (Kurrachee) District; and west by Khelát. Extreme length, 45 miles; breadth, 32 miles.

Physical Aspects.—With the exception of the extreme western portion, which is mountainous and contains peaks 6000 feet high, the country is a flat plain intersected by the WESTERN NARA CANAL. The tract between this stream and the Indus is very fertile, and fairly wooded. Patches of *kalar* or saline waste occur at places. The Indus supplies all the canals in this Sub-District, the principal of which are—the Western Nárá, 71 miles long; the Wahurwáh, 30 miles long, tapping the Indus at Chana, and joining it again near Sítá; the Marui, Kudan, and other minor branches. Numerous hill torrents are also utilized for irrigation purposes. The chief kinds of soil found in Mehar are alluvial deposit and hill detritus. Under the hills, the land is very favourable for cotton; and it is estimated that 300,000 acres are suitable for the cultivation of this important staple. The only Government forest is the Magsi, with an area of 1483 acres. *Bábul*, *ním*, *sissu*, almond, and medlar trees abound. Alum is found in the Khirthar range to the west of Mehar.

Population.—The total population of the Sub-District was returned in 1872 at 142,305, of whom 123,471 were Musalmáns, 18,811 Hindus, and 23 'others.' The average of persons per square mile is 57. The chief towns are MEHAR and KHAIRPUR NATHESHAH. Eight fairs are held in the Sub-District, that of Nango Sháh being the most numerously attended. There are two sanitaria in Mehar, viz. Dhar Yáro and the Danna Towers. The former is situated in lat. 27° 20′ N., and long. 67° 17′ E., on the Khirthar range, distant 70 miles west from Lárkána. It is surrounded by lofty peaks, and sheltered on all sides; but the hot winds which blow in the plains during the summer would make the journey extremely hazardous for an invalid. The Danna Towers stand at an elevation of 4500 feet, on a plateau of the Khirthar Mountains, about 50 miles south-west of Mehar town. The scenery is highly picturesque; about 3 miles to the south-west is the little river Herar, containing abundant supplies of water. The lofty crags overhanging the valley are studded with flowers and ferns. The general aspect of the hills is wild and barren, but thousands of sheep and goats find pasturage among the stunted vegetation. The atmosphere is very clear

and buoyant, and the climate uniform. The only hot months are June and July. The present accommodation of the Towers is inadequate, but efforts are being made to remedy this defect.

Agriculture.—The *kharíf* crops, sown in June and reaped in October, include *joár*, *bájra*, rice, oil-seeds, and various vegetables. The *rabi* crops, sown in November and reaped in May, comprise wheat, barley, gram, tobacco, and *matar*. The *peshras* crops, sown in February and reaped in September, include cotton, sugar-cane, indigo, and vegetables. Irrigation is mainly effected from wells and canals. Cultivation in *baráni* or rain-land is carried on in the tract lying near the western chain of hills. The entire area of cultivable land held in *jágír* is 61,508 acres, that of unarable waste being still larger. The average assessment on Survey cultivable land in the 3 *táluks* of Mehar Sub-District is—in Kakar, 3s.; in Mehar, from 1s. 7½d. to 3s. 3d.; and in Nasírábád, 3s. 6d. The new settlement was introduced between the years 1867-68 and 1870-71. Mehar is subject to frequent floods from the NARA, which at times destroy the rice crops.

Manufactures, Commerce, etc.—The chief manufactures are salt, saltpetre, and coarse cloth. Considerable quantities of grain are exported by the Indus to Haidarábád and other places. There are in all about 300 miles of road in the Division, of which the principal line is that from Lárkána Sub-District, nearly north and south through Mehar, and on to Sehwan. Postal lines of communication run from Mehar to Kakar, Wárah, Lárkána, and Sehwan. The number of ferries is 31, of which 10 are on the Indus and the remainder on the Western Nárá.

Administration.—The revenue of Mehar amounted in 1873-74 to £48,613, being £44,794 from imperial and £3819 from local sources. The land tax furnished £40,646; stamps, £1964; *abkári* or excise, £548; salt, £567; cesses on land, £2708; and fisheries, £445. The Sub-District is administered by a Deputy Collector and Assistant. There is a subordinate civil court at Mehar under the District Judge of Shikárpur. The police force consists of 131 men, or 1 policeman to every 1086 persons. Every *múkhtiárkár's* headquarters station has a subordinate jail or lock-up. In 1873-74, there were 11 Government schools, with 426 pupils. All these schools are vernacular, and for boys only. The Sub-District contains two municipal towns—viz. Mehar and Khairpur Natheshāh. Their receipts in 1873-74 were £157 and £57 respectively.

Climate.—The average annual maximum temperature at Mehar town for the three years ending 1874 was 88·7° F. The total rainfall in 1874 was 3·17 inches. Fevers are prevalent. Mehar town possesses a dispensary.

Mehar. — *Táluk* of the Mehar Deputy Collectorate, Shikárpur

District, Sind, lying between 27° 2′ and 27° 23′ N. lat., and between 67° 30′ and 68° 14′ E. long. Area, 583 square miles; pop. (1872), 62,265; total revenue (1873-74), £18,881.

Mehar.—Chief town and municipality of Mehar Deputy Collectorate, Shikárpur District, Sind; situated in lat. 27° 10′ 45″ N., and long. 67° 52′ E., on the Kakol Canal, 36 miles south-west of Lárkána. A picturesque place surrounded with large trees. Headquarters of the Deputy Collector of the Division, and contains the usual Government offices, with a dispensary, travellers' bungalow, market, Government vernacular school, and police lines. Pop. (1872), 1246; municipal revenue (1873-74), £157. The trade, both local and transit, is in grain, cotton, and tobacco.

Mehidpur (*Mehedpur*).—Town in one of the outlying portions of Indore State, Central India; situated in lat. 23° 29′ 30″ N., and long. 75° 46′ 30″ E., on the right bank of the Sípra (Seepra), in an angle formed by the confluence of a small feeder. The opposite bank of the river was the scene of the decisive victory gained in 1817 by the British under Sir Thomas Hislop over the Marhattás under Holkar. Our troops, crossing the river by a ford just above the town, routed the enemy at the point of the bayonet, taking their camp with 63 guns and a large quantity of ammunition. The British loss was 174 killed and 604 wounded; that of the Marhattás was estimated at 3000 men.

Mehkar.—Chief town of a *parganá* of the same name in Buldána District, Berar; situated in lat. 20° 9′ 30″ N., and long. 76° 37′ E., on rising uneven ground on the high road from Jálna Nágpur. Pop. (1867), 3583. Mehkar is said to take its name from Meghan Kara, a demon, who, after a combat, was put to death by Shárangdhar, an incarnation of Vishnu. Outside the town are the ruins of an ancient edifice of solid masonry attributed to Hemár Panth, and said to be over 2000 years old. In 1769 A.D., the Peshwá Madho Ráo, accompanied by Sindhia and Rukan-ud-daulá, the Nizám's minister, encamped here, with the intention of punishing the Bhonslá, who had assisted Raghunáth Ráo's insurrection. General Doveton also encamped here with his army in 1817 on his march to Nágpur against Apá Sáhib Bhonslá, who had broken the treaty of Deogáon. Mehkar formerly contained many weavers, Hindu and Muhammadan. The latter, about 400 years ago, were so rich that they not only undertook to fortify the place, but could afford to build up the old fallen rampart, as appears from an inscription on the Momins' gate still standing. Pindári inroads reduced the town to great distress; and its ruin was completed by the great famine of 1803, after which, it is said, not more than 50 inhabited huts remained. Till quite recently, Mehkar was famous for its excellent *dhotis* (waist-cloths), but the cheapness of European fabrics has lessened the demand for these.

Mehmadábád.—Chief town of the Mehmadábád Subdivision, Káira District, Bombay; and a station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway; 20 miles south of Ahmedábád. It is situated in lat. 22° 49′ 30″ N., and long. 72° 48′ E.; pop. (1872), 8065. Mehmadábád is a municipality, with an annual income of £110. It was founded in 1479 by Mahmúd Begára, who ruled in Guzerat from 1459 to 1511. Of the objects of interest, the most beautiful are two tombs about a mile to the east of the town, built in 1484 in honour of Mubárak Sayyid, one of the ministers of Mahmúd Begára, and his wife. Post office; dispensary.

Melagiris.—Mountain range in Salem District, Madras, lying between 12° 10′ and 12° 30′ N. lat., and between 77° 38′ and 78° 2′ E. long., and occupying the south and south-east of Osúr *táluk*. Average elevation, about 3500 feet; highest point, Ponasiheta, 4969 feet. The hills are inhabited by Malayáli hillmen, and are thickly covered with bamboo. There are also some sandal-wood forests. Water is bad and scarce, and the whole tract is very malarious, fever of a severe type being common.

Meláo.—Town in Káira District, Bombay. Lat. 22° 34′ N., long. 72° 52′ E.; pop. (1872), 5085.

Melghát (sometimes called *Gángra*).—*Táluk* and hill tract of Ellichpur District, Berar, lying between 21° 11′ and 21° 46′ N. lat., and between 76° 40′ and 77° 40′ E. long. Area, 1625 square miles; pop. (1867), 40,405. It is a section of the Sátpura range, extremely rugged, and broken into a succession of hills and valleys. The main ridge or watershed of the range, rising to 3987 feet above sea level at Bairát, runs from east to west, almost parallel to, and a few miles from, the plain of Berar on the south. This ridge terminates towards the south very abruptly, in some cases by sheer scarps of trap rock, over 1000 feet high, forming round the station of Chikalda magnificent cliffs, which characterise its scenery. The northern ranges, on the other hand, gradually descend by gently sloping plateaux till they close in the valley of the Tápti. In the Melghát, the crest of the Sátpuras attains an average elevation of 3400 feet above sea level, while the highest of the lower hills bordering on the Tápti is 1650 feet. The chief passes are Mallána on the east, Dúlghát on the west, and Bingára on the extreme west. None of these have roads practicable for wheeled carriages. From time immemorial, forests have covered the highlands, clearings for cultivation existing here and there. Teak and *tiwas* (Dalbergia oojeinensis) abound in parts, together with many other valuable timber-trees. The trunks of some of these—notably the *sáj* (Pentaptera tomentosa), *hardu* (Nauclea cordifolia), *lendia* (Lagerstrœmia parviflora), and *behera* (Terminalia belerica)—run up to a height of 60 or 70 feet without a branch. The bamboo is abundant.

The forests are now under Government conservancy. Various dyes, gums, fibres, bees-wax, and honey are among the forest produce. Large deer and smaller game abound in the forests, and tigers are also found. Numerous streams rise in the Sátpuras; seven of the most important flow south into the Púrna affluent of the Tápti, while some drain the country northwards, carrying their waters direct to the Tápti, which skirts in its course about 30 miles of the northern boundary of Melghát. Towards the hot season, all these streams dry up, save where, in the upper hills, deep cavernous basins are found, large enough to hold a supply till the next monsoon. Lower down, the water lies in large sheets, one of which, at a village on the Sipna, is above a mile long and about 100 yards wide, and of considerable depth. The climate of the higher ranges is healthy and invigorating; the lower valleys are malarious and enervating, except during the hot season. The mean temperature at Chikalda is 71° F. The tea-plant thrives in Melghát; and as the rains approach, orchids and polypods spring into life. Among the few gay flowers in the cold months are those of the downy Grislea, and the sweet Clematis gouriama, whose odour hangs on every hill, where its plant is seen entwining its leafy tendrils from branch to branch, in snowy wreaths. The Melghát contains no town; but in this tract are situated the remarkable forts of GAWILGARH and NARNALA, and the pleasant hill station of CHIKALDA, 3777 feet above sea level. The Census of 1867 gave the population of Melghát as 40,405 (living in 324 villages), of whom more than four-fifths were aborigines and hill tribes. Dárni, the largest of the villages, contains fewer than 800 inhabitants; the only others worthy of note are Dewa and Bairágarh, where annual fairs are held. The average number of persons per village is 124. Large numbers of horned cattle are kept, and the trade in *ghí* is considerable.

Melukot (literally, '*Superior Fort*'). — Sacred village in Hassan District, Mysore. Lat. 12° 40′ N., long. 76° 43′ E.; pop. (1871), 2842, of whom the majority are Sri-Vaishnav Bráhmans. Formerly a great city, of which only the ruins now remain. In the 12th century, the Vaishnava reformer, Rámánujáchári, lived here for fourteen years, having fled from the persecution of the Cholá king. It thus became the chief seat of the Sri-Vaishnav Bráhmans, who converted to their sect the Ballála dynasty, and obtained rich endowments. In 1771, the town was sacked by the Marhattás. The principal temple, dedicated to Krishna under the name of Cheluva-pulle Ráya, was under the special patronage of the late Mahárájá of Mysore, and possesses a valuable collection of jewels. A more striking building is the temple of Narasinha, situated on a rocky eminence. The *Vaira Mudi* festival is annually attended by 10,000 persons. The *guru* of the Sri-Vaishnav Bráhmans has his residence here; and about 400 priests are attached to the great

temple, of whom some are men of learning. There are special industries of cotton-weaving, and the manufacture of ornamental fans out of the fragrant roots of *khas-khas* grass. A white clay called *náma*, found in the neighbourhood, which has been formed by the decomposition of schistose mica, is used by the Sri-Vaishnavs for painting the sectarian mark on their foreheads, and is exported for this purpose as far as Benares.

Melúr.—Village in Bangalore District, Mysore. Pop. (1871), 691. A cattle fair is held annually for fourteen days from the full-moon in the month of Chaitra, in connection with the Gangadevi *parishe*, which is attended by 10,000 persons.

Memári.—Town in Bardwán District, Bengal; station on the East Indian Railway. Manufacture of silk *sáris* and *dhutis*.

Mendháwal.—Town in Basti District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 26° 58′ 45″ N., and long. 83° 9′ 10″ E., 3 miles from the right bank of the river Rápti, and 2 from the north shore of the Motí Jhíl or Pearl Lake; 20 miles north-west of Gorakhpur cantonment, and 30 miles north-east of Basti town. Pop. (1869), 8124; municipal revenue (1876), £214; incidence of taxation, 6½d. per head. The principal trading town of the District, with a large market for iron and drugs from Nepál, which are exchanged for cotton from Cawnpore. School, dispensary.

Mendi-khálí.—A navigable arm of the MEGHNA river, Bengal; communicating with the BRAHMAPUTRA at Kákiár Tek in Dacca District.

Meng-bra.—Township in Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Divided into 15 revenue circles, and adjoins Kyouk-hpyú District, to which were added, a few years ago, several circles from this township. In the south, the soil is good, cultivation extensive, and the country much intersected by navigable creeks, which serve as means of communication. Portions of this tract are liable to inundation at high tides. Pop. (1876-77), 26,893; revenue, £9277.

Meng-dai.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. A hilly and forest-clad country, now including Za-lún. Pop. (1876-77), 7169; gross revenue, £953.

Meng-dat.—Revenue circle in the Meng-dún township, Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 27 square miles, of which only 4000 acres are cultivable, the remainder being hilly and covered with forest. Teak, cutch, palm, and bamboos are the principal varieties of trees found here. Chief products—rice, sesamum, cotton, maize, tobacco, and chillies. Pop. (1872), 3445; revenue (1876-77), £239.

Meng-dún (*Meng-pún*—'Prince's hiding-place,' so called from an incident in the early history of Burma).—Township in Thayet Dis-

trict, Pegu Division, British Burma, lying between 19° 5′ and 19° 30′ N. lat., and between 94° 30′ and 94° 45′ E. long. Area, 708 square miles. Bounded north by Upper Burma; east by Thayet township; south by Ka-ma; and west by the Arakan Mountains. Pop. (1877), 26,039, chiefly Burmese; revenue in 1876-77, £3796. The present township of Meng-dún includes MENGDAT. During the last two centuries, under the Burmese government, it was the residence of a Provincial Governor of high rank, with full power of life and death, having jurisdiction over the tract known as the 'Seven Districts along the Hill.' The last Myo-tsa of Meng-dún was the late king of Burma, who received from his place of residence the title of 'Meng-dún Prince,' by which he was known previous to his accession. The township contains 45 registered village tracts. Total area under cultivation in 1876-77, 14,485 acres, of which 10,178 were under rice.

Meng-dún.—Revenue circle in the Meng-dún township, Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Products—rice, cotton, sesamum, plantains, tobacco, onions, etc. Pop. (1876-77), 4178; revenue, £282.

Meng-dún.—Headquarters of the township of the same name in Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated amongst the hills at a bend of the Ma-htún river, in lat. 19° 20′ N., long. 94° 44′ E. Pop. (1876), 1600, engaged chiefly in agriculture.

Meng-ga-la-dún. — Revenue circle in the Hmaw-bhí township, Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Hilly and forest-clad in the east and south-east; towards the west the country sinks into lowlands. Area under cultivation (1877-78), 7236 acres; revenue, £2438; pop. 5963. Towards the north-east corner is the village of Meng-ga-la-dún, near the site of a once flourishing town built in 750 A.D.

Meng-ga-la-gyí.—Revenue circle in the Naaf township, Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 3569; gross revenue, £929.

Meng-gyí.—Township of Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 15,770; gross revenue, £3653.

Meng-gyí. — Town in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. An important mart, from which the produce of the neighbouring country, principally rice and cutch, is exported down the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), 2 miles to the eastward. Pop. (1876), 1700.

Meng-hla.—Revenue circle in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 8412; gross revenue, £2113.

Meng-hla.—Township in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Hilly and forest-covered country towards the east; in the south is a good deal of rice cultivation. It includes the five revenue circles of Kyek-taik, Tshay-hnit-rwa, Meng-hla, Paik-taw, and Lweng-pyeng. Pop. (1876), 33,191; gross revenue, £11,265.

Mengni.—One of the petty States of Hallár, in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 8 villages, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue in 1876, £2000; tribute of £341 is paid to the British Government.

Meng-pyeng. — Revenue circle in Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 20 square miles; pop. (1876), 3789; gross revenue (1876-77), £872.

Meng-rwa.—Revenue circle in the Shwe-doung township, Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma. The western portion is level, and highly cultivated, whilst the eastern consists of undulating ground and low hills covered with dense forests, in which teak, *eng*, and bamboos abound. Pop. (1876-77), 3039; gross revenue, £711.

Mer and Ser.—Mountain peaks of the Himálayan system, 50 or 60 miles east of the Kashmír (Cashmere) frontier. Probable situation, lat. 34° N., long. 76° 10′ E. Thornton states that these two mountains rise to a great height above the surrounding peaks, and exactly resemble one another in their regular conical form, though one is completely white and the other uniformly black—a peculiarity of which no explanation has been given, as both appear to rise above the level of perpetual snow. Hügel saw them from Wazírábád, in the Gujránwála plain, 140 miles distant, overtopping all the hills of Kashmír and many other intervening heights.

Meratúr.—Town in Tanjore District, Madras. Lat. 10° 50′ N., long. 79° 23′ E.; pop. (1871), 6553; number of houses, 1232.

Mercara.—*Táluk* and town in Coorg.—*See* MERKARA.

Mergui.—A District in Tenasserim Division, occupying the southernmost portion of British Burma, and lying between 9° 58′ and 13° 24′ N. lat., and between 90° 15′ and 98° 35′ E. long. Area (including Tavoy Island, added in 1875), 7810 square miles; population in 1872, 47,192 persons. Bounded on the north by Tavoy District; east by the Yoma Mountains, the Pak-chan river, and Siam; south by Lower Siam; and west by the Bay of Bengal. Its length is 206 miles, and the mean breadth (excluding Mergui Archipelago), 40 miles. The headquarters of the District are at MERGUI TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—Two principal ranges cross the District from north to south in a nearly north-west and south-east direction, running almost parallel to each other for a considerable distance, with the river Tenasserim winding between them till it turns south and flows through a narrow rocky gorge in the westernmost range to the sea. Amongst these mountain ranges and their subsidiary spurs are several plains, the largest and most productive of which lies on the western side of the District, stretching from lat. 11° 28′ to 12° 58′ N. That enclosed between the two main ranges (100 miles in length and 10 in breadth) possesses a rich alluvial soil, but at present is almost entirely covered

with forest, except in the patches cleared by the Karengs and Siamese. In the south is the valley of the Pak-chan; and extending for 30 miles along the right bank of that river is a third plain, of which the soil is suitable for the cultivation of all kinds of tropical produce. The entire face of the country is densely clothed with luxuriant vegetation. Indeed, the whole District, from the water's edge to the loftiest mountain ridge, may be regarded as an unbroken forest, only 73 square miles being under cultivation. The timber-trees found towards the interior, and on the more elevated situations, are of great size and beauty; the most valuable being teak, *then-gan* (Hopea odorata), *ka-gnyeng* (Dipterocarpus tuberculatus), etc. The coast-line, studded with islands, of which within the District limits there are 207, is much broken, and for several miles inland very little raised above sea level, and drained by numerous muddy tidal creeks. Southwards of Mergui, it consists chiefly of low mangrove swamps alternating with small fertile rice plains. After passing the mangrove limits, the ground to the east gradually rises till it becomes mountainous, even to the banks of the rivers, and finally culminates in the grand natural barrier dividing the Province of British Burma from Siam. The four principal rivers in the District are the TENASSERIM, the Le-gnya, the PAK-CHAN, and the Pa-louk, all navigable for some distance of their course, excepting the last. The first has its sources north of Mergui, which it traverses from north to south in a narrow valley as far as the town of Tenasserim, where it is joined by a tributary, the Little Tenasserim; the united stream then turns suddenly westwards, and empties itself into the Bay of Bengal. The Le-gnya rises in the main range in about lat. 13° 45′ N., and has a general northerly course for some 60 miles past Le-gnya town, when it turns west, and falls into the Bay of Bengal. The Pak-chan also rises in the main range, and flows in a southerly direction for 78 miles to Victoria Point; the breadth at its mouth is 2½ miles. The Pa-louk is a small stream in the north, which is only 700 yards broad at its mouth; its course is obstructed by rapids and falls. There are several mountain passes in the District. The most northern, across the main range into Siam, is by the Tsa-raw, but this is only used by Karengs. Seventy-six miles farther south is another pass, at the source of the Thien-khwon stream, called by the Burmese *Maw-doung* ('Tired Hill'), and by the Siamese *Khow-maun* ('Pillow Mountain'). This forms the chief line of communication between Mergui and the southern Provinces of Siam. The other four principal passes have the Nga-won for a common base, the mountains being crossed by following up its eastern affluents. Coal is found in the District; but the most serious objection to its profitable working is the rapid dip of the beds, and the consequent depth to which all shafts would have to be sunk. The principal localities are situated on the banks of the Tenasserim and its tributaries. Gold,

copper, iron, and manganese are also found in various parts of the District. In the Pa-louk valley are several thermal springs, in the hottest of which the thermometer registers 196° Fahr. Tigers, leopards, rhinoceros, and elephants abound, as well as several kinds of deer and wild hog. The animal and vegetable products are again referred to in the paragraph on the trade of the District.

History, etc.—Of the early history of Mergui but little is known. Ralph Fitch and Cæsar Frederic (1569 A.D.) both mention it as an important trading country, and in the 17th century it probably formed a portion of the Siamese dominions. Tenasserim is said to have been founded in 1373 A.D. by the Siamese, from whom it was wrested at the end of the 18th century by Aloung-bhúra. It remained in the possession of the Burmese up to the time of the first Burmese war; but during this interval the country was in a chronic state of anarchy. In 1824, Sir Archibald Campbell despatched a force which, after capturing Tavoy, appeared before Mergui on the 6th of October of that year. The town speedily yielded, and the stockade was carried by assault. Early in 1825, a Siamese force landed, and ravaged the country about Tenasserim, but was soon routed; and from that period Mergui has remained in undisturbed possession of the English.

The only architectural remains in the District of any historical interest are the ruins of the walls of old Tenasserim, in which place there is a pagoda called Wot-tsheng, built in 1350 A.D., but of no great sanctity. The Ze-da-won pagoda, on a hill on the banks of the Tenasserim river, is alleged to have been founded by King Na-ra-pa-dí-tshí-hú in 1208 A.D., and is annually visited by large numbers of pilgrims.

Population, etc.—From the notices of early travellers, it appears that Mergui, when under Siamese rule, was a rich and densely populated country. On the occupation of the District by the British, it was found to be almost depopulated—the result of the border warfare already mentioned, and of the cruelties exercised by the Burmese conquerors. The number of inhabitants at that time was only 10,000. In 1872, it had risen to 47,192; and in 1876-77, to 51,846. Classified according to sex, in 1876 there were 26,767 males and 25,079 females. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 11,787, and females, 11,012; total, 22,799: above 12 years—males, 14,980, and females, 14,067; total, 29,047. Classified according to religion, there were—Hindus, 353; Muhammadans, 2533; Buddhists (including Karengs), 48,750; Christians and 'others,' 210. The excess of males over females may be ascribed to the immigration of males from Siam, China, India, and the Straits, who rarely bring their wives or families with them. The chief aboriginal tribe of this District, the Selungs, are very low in the scale of civilisation, but are gradually becoming more

settled in their habits. Their chief occupations are fishing, collecting sandal-wood and sea-slugs. The number of agriculturists in Mergui (1876-77) was 23,180; of non-agriculturists, 28,666. The District contains only one town with more than 5000 inhabitants. The head-quarters station MERGUI has a population of 10,731; Pa-law, 1481; Le-gnya, 181; TENASSERIM, 666. The remaining villages, 198 in number, are small, and of no importance; 56 contain less than 200 inhabitants, 130 between 200 and 500, and 10 between 500 and 1000.

Agriculture.—The District is far more important from its mineral than from its agricultural wealth, only 73 square miles of the total area of 7810 being under tillage. Rice is grown in the plains and in the hill *toungyas*, and small quantities are exported from the coast towns. The area thus cultivated is slowly but steadily increasing. Sugar-cane, tobacco, and sesamum are also produced to some extent; the *dhaní* (Nipa fruticans) is found in great perfection here, and from it a coarse kind of sugar is extracted. It is in fruits and vegetables, however, that Mergui is agriculturally richest. Dorians, mangosteens, jack, cocoa-nuts, guavas, mulberries, oranges, pine-apples, yams, gourds, cucumbers, etc., are grown extensively; and the frequent steam communication with Rangoon and Maulmain facilitates their export. The acreage of the chief crops in 1876-77 was—rice, 31,879; *dhaní* palms, 3796; cocoa-nuts, 1141; betel-nuts, 727; plantains, 427; the area planted with mixed fruit-trees was 3543 acres. The soil is poorer than in any other part of the Province, the average out-turn of rice being only 1000 lbs. per acre. The price per *maund* of 80 lbs. of rice was 4s. 6d.; of sugar, £2; of tobacco, £2. The daily wage of a skilled labourer in 1876-77, was 2s.; of an unskilled workman, 1s. The number of oil and sugar mills was 20. The average holding of each cultivator is about 5·70 acres; and the average number of persons dependent upon each male agriculturist of twenty years of age and upwards (who in 1872 numbered 18,512) is 6·31.

Manufactures, etc.—The principal manufactures in the District are jaggery-sugar-boiling, and tin-smelting. Sugar is made chiefly in Tenasserim, Le-gnya, and the villages round Mergui Island. Jaggery is obtained from the Nipa palm. The cost of smelting is estimated at 3s. per 100 lbs. of ore, which yield on an average 66 lbs. of pure tin. In 1877-78, only 13 out of the 29 mines in Mergui were worked. The early importance of the commerce of Mergui has been already alluded to. The District has a flourishing trade with Rangoon, Bassein, and the Straits Settlements. The chief articles of export are rice, rattans, torches, dried fish, areca-nuts, sesamum seeds, molasses, sea-slugs, edible birds' nests, and tin. Sea-slugs, shark-fins, and edible birds' nests are sent mainly to Singapore and Penang; and rice is sometimes carried to the Nicobar Islands, whence are brought in exchange

tortoiseshell, and occasionally wreckage. The staple imports are piece-goods, tobacco, cotton, earthenware, tea, and sugar. Value of exports (1876-77), £44,307; of imports, £49,057. Postal communication is carried on by the steamers of the British India Steam Navigation Company, which call once a week on their passage between Calcutta and the ports of British Burma; also by the Maulmain Steam-tug Company, whose steamers run from Mergui to Maulmain once a month. Total length of water communication, 178 miles; of trade roads, 79 miles.

Revenue, etc.—During the 16th century, the Peguan sovereigns received from Mergui an annual revenue of £39,000, 30 elephants, and all the custom dues of the port; but when this District was first occupied by the British, the revenue derived was very small, and in 1853-54, twenty-seven years later, was only £5650. In 1866-67, the amount had risen to £13,517; and in 1876-77, to £18,208. Customs offices were established in 1855-56; and in 1861-62, the turtle banks were first leased out for a term of years. During the last twenty-three years the revenues have more than trebled, while the land revenue and capitation tax have increased by 260 and 215 per cent. respectively. In addition to this imperial revenue, a provincial one is raised, which, in 1876-77, amounted to £1495. Mergui is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, 5 extra-Assistant Commissioners, and a Superintendent of Police. The District is now divided into the 5 townships of MERGUI, PA-LAW, TENASSERIM, LE-GNYA, and MA-LI-WON. The number of criminal, civil, and revenue courts is 7, and their average distance from a village 32 miles. The police force consists of 20 officers and 178 men, of whom 10 are boatmen and 16 are paid from municipal funds. The largest number of prisoners confined in the District jail at Mergui town, during the five years ending 1876, was 25; all long-term convicts are sent to Maulmain. The hospital and charitable dispensary are also in the headquarters station; number of patients treated (1876), 3295. Until late years, the education of the District was carried on chiefly by the Buddhist priests and by the Roman Catholic and American Baptist missionaries; but in 1871, the State opened a school at Mergui. In 1876-77, the number of pupils on the rolls (all learning through the English language) was 66; the average daily attendance, 58. Besides this, there are in the District 16 other schools aided by Government and inspected by the State officers, but the standard attained in them is unsatisfactory.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Mergui is remarkably healthy, as the great heat arising from its tropical situation is moderated by land and sea breezes. The variation of temperature is small. The most obvious peculiarity of the atmosphere is its humidity; the rainfall in 1876 amounted to 165·22 inches. The prevalent diseases are remittent and simple fevers, bronchitis, rheumatism, and small-pox.

Reported number of deaths per 1000 of population for the five years ending 1876, 19·62.

Mergui. — Chief town of Mergui District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 12° 11′ N., and long. 98° 38′ E., on an island in the principal mouth of the Tenasserim river, which falls into the Bay of Bengal about two miles to the north of the town. The harbour admits vessels drawing 18 feet of water. Rising almost from high-water mark is a low range of hills, on which stand the court-houses and the old barracks. The town lies to the north, east, and west. The other buildings are the treasury and police office, in the same masonry building as that in which the courts are held, the circuit-house on the northern crest of the hill, and the charitable dispensary somewhat lower down; on the beach is the market with a masonry causeway to the sea, covered at high tides. The population in 1876-77 was 10,731, consisting of many races—Talaings, Burmese, Malays, Bengális, Madrasis, Siamese, and Chinese. Mergui was formerly a penal station for Bengal. The present town is modern, having replaced a flourishing city mentioned by more than one of the early travellers. This old city was burnt by the Siamese in 1821, and in the middle of last century only a few fishing hamlets marked the spot on which it stood. The place was taken during the first Burmese war by Colonel Miles, and has since then been a British town. A considerable trade is carried on with the other ports of British Burma and with the Straits Settlement. Chief exports—rice, timber, dried fish, etc.; imports—cotton piece-goods, silk, and tea. Value of imports (1876-77), £49,057; exports, £44,307; total, £93,364.

Mergui Archipelago.—A large group of islands, which, commencing in the north with Tavoy Island, in about 13° 13′ N. lat., stretches southwards beyond the limits of British territory in Burma. They have been described as 'a cluster of islands and islets with bays and coves, headlands and highlands, capes and promontories, high bluffs and low shores, rocks and sands, fountain streams and cascades, mountain, plain, and precipice, unsurpassed for their wild fantastic and picturesque beauty.' The most westerly are composed of granite and porphyry; those nearer the shore, of sandstone and conglomerate. Some of these islands are 3000 feet in height. Maingy (Maingay) Island, in lat. 12° 32′ N. and long. 98° 7′ E., can be seen for 11 miles, and the southern peak of St. Matthew's, in lat. 10° 52′ N. and long. 98° E., for 13 miles. They are but sparsely inhabited, and are the resort of a peculiar race, the Selungs, who rarely leave them to visit the mainland. The principal products are edible birds' nests and *bêches de mer* (Holothuria; Sp. tripang, or sea-slug), collected by the Selungs, who exchange them with Burmese and Malays for rice and spirits. The caoutchouc tree is said to grow in great abundance, and

the gum is extracted by Malays from Singapur. The islands are infested by snakes and wild animals—tiger, rhinoceros, and deer.

Merkára (*Mercara*).—*Táluk* or Subdivision in the territory of Coorg, with its administrative headquarters at the town of the same name. Area, 265 square miles; number of villages, 58; number of houses, 4606. Pop. (1871), 32,123, of whom 27,848 are Hindus, 3310 Muhammadans, 13 Jains, 952 Christians; there are 3180 native Coorgs. Merkára occupies a tableland in the centre of Coorg, about 3500 feet above sea level. The country is much broken by hill ranges and ravines, and covered with dense forest. The jungles yield valuable timber, including teak, sandal-wood, and bamboo. The American aloe (Agave americana) is found, but its fibre is not utilized. The cultivation of cinchona (Cinchona succirubra), for the preparation of quinine, has been successfully carried on since 1863. The Merkára plateau is especially adapted to the cultivation of coffee, which was first attempted by Mr. Fowler in 1854. Both the climate and the soil are favourable. The plants are grown on the slope of the hills, where they do not require to be protected by artificial shade. The chief trouble of the planter is to prevent the light surface soil from being washed away by the excessive rainfall. This object is attained by cutting terraces and drains, or by a judicious system of weeding.

Merkára (*Madhukeri*, or *Mahádeva-pet*).—Chief town and administrative capital of the territory of Coorg; situated in lat. 12° 26′ 50″ N., and long. 75° 46′ 55″ E., on a tableland 3809 feet above the sea, 130 miles south-west from Bangalore, and 47 miles north-east from Cannanore. Pop. (1871), 8146; municipal revenue (1875-76), £380; rate of taxation, 11d. per head. Merkára is said to have been founded in 1681 by Muddu Rájá, the first of the Coorg Rájás whose history is given in the *Rájendra-náme* or Royal Chronicle. The original seat of the family had been at HALERI; but henceforth Merkára has continued to be the capital of the State up to the present day. The fort is situated on an eminence of considerable natural strength, but commanded by neighbouring hills. The walls of stone, still in fair preservation, were built by Tipú Sultán during the brief period of Muhammadan domination in Coorg. The shape is an irregular hexagon, with a ditch all round, and a glacis on the north. Within are the palace, the English church, and the arsenal. The offices of the administration are situated below the eastern gateway. The palace was erected in 1812 by Linga Rájendra Wodeyar, and has recently been put into thorough repair. It covers an area of 200 square feet, with an open court in the centre. The ground plan is that of a Coorg house, two stories high, with a superstructure in European style. The whole is handsomely built of brick and mortar. One of the lower rooms is now used as the Provincial treasury; the remainder of the building is tenanted by the

officers of the native regiment stationed at Merkára. The principal buildings in the native quarter of the town are the mausoleums of Dodda Virá Rájendra, the hero of Coorg independence, Linga Rájendra, and their favourite queens. These are all enclosed within a high embankment; they are built in a Muhammadan style of architecture, with a central dome and minarets at the corners. The tombstones are covered with a white cloth, and flowers renewed daily. A lamp is kept continually burning, and the Lingáyat attendants are endowed by Government with an annual grant of £200. The chief Hindu temple is that called the Omkareswara Devastána, built in the same style as the mausoleums. The Bráhman priests of this temple receive an endowment of £485 a year. The central school occupies the site of a handsome building, erected by Dodda Virá Rájendra as a reception-house for English visitors. In 1875-76, this school was attended by 348 pupils, of whom 230 were native Coorgs. The boarding-house in connection with it had 91 inmates. The total cost was £647. In addition, there was a normal school with 6 pupils, costing £109. In the same year, the number of patients relieved at the dispensary was 5460. The cantonments were occupied by the 28th Regiment of Madras Native Infantry, with a total strength of 750 men and followers. This regiment has suffered severely in health since it has been stationed in Coorg. In 1875-76, the average of daily sick in hospital was 56·78 per 1000; the death-rate among the families was 44·17 per 1000. As compared with the plains of India, the climate of Merkára is cold and damp. The average annual temperature is 66·6° F.; the average annual rainfall is 123·21 inches, of which 103·75 inches fall in the monsoon months between June and September. The climate is not unfavourable to European health, but natives who have recently arrived from the low country suffer much from fever and bowel complaints. The principal events in the history of Merkára are—the capitulation of Tipú Sultán's general to Dodda Virá Rájendra in 1790; and the unopposed occupation by the British in 1834, when the Rájá was deposed and the territory of Coorg annexed to British India. A weekly fair is held on Fridays.

Merta (*Mirta*).—Town in Jodhpur State, Rájputána; situated in lat. 26° 39′ N., and long. 74° 5′ 35″ E., on the route from Jodhpur to Ajmere, 76 miles north-east of the former. Pop., according to Boileau, 25,950. The town stands on high ground, and has a striking appearance. It is surrounded by a wall, the eastern side of which is of good masonry, while on the western side it is of mud. Numerous temples and a large mosque. Water abundant, but brackish. The plains of Merta were the scene of the great battle of 1754, in which Vijáya Sinh of Jodhpur was defeated by the Marhattás under Sindhia; which led to the acquisition of Ajmere by the Marhattás, and their permanent hold on Rájput territory.

Mertigudda (or *Kalasa*).—Mountain in Kádúr District, Mysore; 5451 feet above sea level. Lat. 13° 18′ N., long. 75° 26′ E. The sides are clothed with forest trees, among which the *champak* is conspicuous, and broken by occasional terraces of rice cultivation. The ascent is very steep. The view from the summit is described as magnificent.

Mesána. — Town in the Kadi Subdivision of Baroda territory, Bombay. Lat. 23° 42′ N., long. 72° 36′ 30″ E.; pop. (1872), 7825.

Mettapolliem.—Municipal town in Coimbatore District, Madras, and the terminus of the Nílgiri Branch Railway; situated in lat. 11° 19′ N., and long. 76° 59′ E., on the Bhavani river. Its population, which, according to the Census of 1871, was only 617, had risen by 1877 to 4144; number of houses in 1877, 1075; municipal revenue, £850, of which £640 was derived from tolls on the traffic to the Nílgiris. The railway traffic in 1875 was 65,867 passengers, and 9500 tons of goods, valued at £25,000.

Mevli.—One of the petty States of Rewá Kánta, Bombay. Area, 6 square miles. Four chiefs. Estimated revenue in 1875, £220; tribute of £150 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Mewár (*Meywar*).—State and town in Rájputána.—*See* UDAIPUR.

Mewása.—One of the petty States of North Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 6 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £620; tribute of £44 is paid to the British Government, and £11 to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Mewát.—An historical province of India, lying south of Delhi, and including parts of the present British Districts of Muttra and Gurgáon, and a considerable portion of Ulwur (Alwár) and some of Bhartpur. It was for many centuries famous for the predatory character of its inhabitants, who at all times gave great trouble to their Pathán and Mughal neighbours at Delhi. In Mughal times, Mewát formed a part of the Subah of Agra. Its most famous towns were Nárnaul, Ulwur (Alwár), Tijára, and Rewárí. Rájá Mangal of Mewát, a Jadún Rájput, married the famous Prithvi Rájá's wife's sister. The Emperor Balban thoroughly conquered this wild country, and established police outposts in various parts. During the troubled times of Timur's invasion, Bahádur Náhar Mewáti was one of the most powerful chiefs in this part of India; and he was the founder of the Khánzáda race, famous in the history of the Delhi empire, and long the rulers of Mewát. At the time of Bábar's invasion, Hasan Khán Khánzáda, chief of Mewát, was ruling at Ulwur, his family having moved thither from Tijára. Both Rájputs and Mewátis were defeated by Bábar at the battle of Fatehpur Síkri; Hasan Khán fell, and his son hastened to submit to the conqueror. Hemu, the great vazir of Adil Sháh, who was defeated at the battle of Pánipat in 1556, was a Mewáti of MACHARI; and this place, after the death of Hemu, opposed a stout resistance to Akbar's armies. Mewát,

however, was once more subdued; and for a long time the Khánzádas were distinguished soldiers in the imperial armies. About 1720 A.D., in the reign of Muhammad Sháh, the Ját freebooters first appeared in Mewát; and between 1724 and 1763 they completely overran the country. In 1775, however, the fort of Ulwur was taken from the Játs by Rájá Partáp Sinh, the ancestor of the present Mahárāo Rájá of Ulwur; and from this time the history of Mewát merges in that of Ulwur and Bhartpur.

The ruling class in Mewát were called Mewátis, or (since the time of Bahádur Náhar mentioned above) Khánzádas. But by far the most numerous part of the population consisted of Meos, a tribe of obscure origin. The Meos themselves claim descent from the Rájput clans of Jádon, Kachhwáha, and Tunwár, and they may possibly have some Rájput blood in their veins; but they are probably, like many similar tribes, a combination from ruling and various stocks and sources; and there is reason to believe them very nearly allied to the Mínas, who are certainly a tribe of the same structure and species. The Meos have 52 clans, of which the 12 largest are called *páls*, the first 6 of which are identical in name, and claim the same descent as the first 6 clans of the Mínas. The smaller clans are called *gôts*. Intermarriage between Meos and Mínas was the rule till the time of Akbár, when, owing to an affray at the marriage of a Meo with a Mína, the custom was discontinued. Finally, their mode of life is, or was, similar, as both tribes were once notoriously predatory. It is probable that the original Meos became supplemented by converts to Islam from other castes, and that they became converts to Islam at the time of Mahmud Ghaznavi, in the eleventh century. They have a mixture of both Musalmán and Hindu customs; they practise circumcision, *niká*, burial of the dead. They make pilgrimages to the tomb of the famous Sayyid Salár Masáúd in Bahráich in Oudh, and consider the oath taken on his banner the most binding; they also make pilgrimages to shrines in India, but never perform *haj*. Among Hindu customs they observe the *Holi* and *Diwáli* festivals; their marriages never take place in the same *gôt*, and their daughters cannot inherit; they call their children indiscriminately by both Musalmán and Hindu names. They are almost entirely uneducated, but have bards and musicians, to whom they make large presents. Songs, called *ratwái*, on pastoral and agricultural subjects, are common. The dialect is harsh and unpolished, so that no difference can be made when addressing a male or female, or with respect to social distinctions. They are given to the use of intoxicating drink, are very superstitious, and have great faith in omens. The dress of the men and women resembles that of the Hindus. Formerly infanticide was common, but this is said to have entirely died out. They were also formerly robbers by avocation; though improved, they are still noted

cattle-lifters. The only approach to caste among them is that the descendants of Lálsinh (who became a fakír, and is said to have performed miracles) call themselves *sádh*, cook with a *chauka*, and keep their food and water separate from the other Meos, but intermarry and adopt the other manners and customs of the tribe.

Mewát.—Range of hills in Delhi and Gurgáon Districts, Punjab, forming the farthest north-eastern escarpment of the great Rájputána tableland in the ancient province of the same name. Runs in irregular lines through the two Districts, and finally terminates in the Ridge at Delhi, where a wide stony plateau abuts on the bank of the Jumna, and forms the extreme outlier of the system. Average elevation above the surrounding alluvial plain, 500 feet. The summit of the plateau consists of a barren expanse covered with masses of coarse sandstone, almost entirely unrelieved by verdure. The whole range may be regarded rather as the boundary between the elevated Rájputána desert and the low-lying valley of the Jumna, than as a separate hill system.

Mhairwára.—Hill tract in the isolated British District of Ajmere-Mhairwára, Rájputána, lying between 25° 24′ and 26° 12′ N. lat., and between 73° 48′ and 74° 31′ E. long. Area, 602 square miles; pop. (1872), 69,234. Bounded north by Jodhpur (Márwár) and Ajmere; east by Udáipur (Mewár) and Ajmere; south by Udáipur; west by Jodhpur. Comprises a narrow strip of territory, 70 miles in length, but varying in breadth from 1 to 15 miles. Scenery hilly and greatly varied; highest peaks attain an elevation of 2855 feet above the sea; average level of valleys, 1800 feet. Naturally dry and unproductive, but rendered comparatively fertile by numerous tanks (formed by embanking gorges or torrents), most of which have been constructed since the introduction of British rule. Mhairwára was originally inhabited by a predatory race of half-naked aborigines, the Mhairs, careless of agriculture, and engaged in constant plundering expeditions into surrounding States. In March 1819, after the British occupation of Ajmere, a force was despatched to subdue these wild hillmen, who, in spite of treaty engagements, had made several raids into our territory. Their villages were taken, but the inhabitants escaped into the impenetrable jungle which then clothed the country. Strong police posts were accordingly stationed in the chief villages. In November 1820, a general insurrection broke out, and the police were massacred. Thereupon, a second force was despatched, which thoroughly subjugated the country, and the ringleaders of the rebellion were punished. The tract was at first divided between Ajmere, Udáipur, and Jodhpur; but this triple government proving weak and ineffectual, the British authorities entered into an arrangement with the two native States in 1822-24, for the management of the whole territory. A strong personal administration, adapted to

the needs of a people only just emerging from predatory life, was rigorously and successfully imposed. A native force, known as the Mhairwára Battalion, transformed the wild mountaineers into brave and disciplined soldiers, whose influence on the pacification of the country cannot be overvalued. Meanwhile, facilities for the adoption of an industrial system were afforded by the construction of numerous tanks, and the foundation of BEAWAR or Náyanagar, the commercial and administrative capital of the tract. Mhairwára rapidly underwent a great social change. The ancient hill villages of the robber tribe, perched upon lofty and inaccessible peaks, were deserted for commodious agricultural centres in the cultivated valley beneath. The character of the people has kept pace with their altered circumstances, and habits of honest industry have replaced the old plundering proclivities. Until 1842, Mhairwára formed a separate District; but in that year it was incorporated with Ajmere, under the management of a Deputy Commissioner (*see* AJMERE-MHAIRWARA). The inhabitants consider themselves Hindus, but pay little respect to the prejudices of their co-religionists. Even the Bráhmans eat meat, and drink spirits freely. BEAWAR is the only town in Mhairwára.

Mhaswad.—Municipal town in Satára District, Bombay; situated 51 miles east of Satára, in lat. 17° 38′ N., and long. 74° 49′ 50″ E. Pop. (1872), 6321; municipal income, £230. Post office and dispensary.

Mhow (*Mau*).—Town and British cantonment in Indore State, Central India; situated in lat. 22° 35′ N., and long. 75° 48′ E., on the Gambir river; distant from Ujjain 42 miles south, from Nímach (Neemuch) 142 miles south-east. The cantonment is situated 1½ mile to the south-east of the town; elevation above the sea, 2019 feet. A considerable force is stationed here, in accordance with the terms of the treaty of Mandesar. Church, lecture-room, large library, and theatre.

Miánganj.—Village in Unao District, Oudh; situated on an unmetalled road from Lucknow to Safipur, 12 miles west of Mohán town, and 18 miles north-east of Unao. Lat. 26° 48′ N., long. 80° 33′ E. A decayed town, built in 1771 by Mián Almás Alí, finance minister to the Nawábs Asaf-ud-daulá and Saádat Alí Khán. Lord Valentia in 1803 described it as a prosperous town; but Bishop Heber in 1823 found 'trees, towers, gates, and palaces sinking fast into rubbish and forgetfulness.' Pop. (1869), 3555, viz. 2451 Hindus and 1104 Musalmáns. Two masonry *saráis* for travellers, 13 mosques, and 4 Hindu temples. The village was the scene of a defeat of the mutineers in 1857.

Miáni (*Meeanee*).—Municipal town in Hushiárpur District, Punjab; situated about 1 mile from the Biás (Beas) river, in lat. 31° 42′ 15″ N., and long. 75° 36′ 15″ E. Pop. (1868), 7706, consisting of 1109 Hindus, 6109 Muhammadans, 34 Síkhs, and 454 'others.' Important centre of

local trade. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £134, or 4d. per head of population (7942) within municipal limits.

Miáni (*Meeanee*).—Municipal town and centre of salt trade in Sháhpur District, Punjab. Lat. 32° 31′ 45″ N., long. 73° 6′ E.; pop. (1868), 6857, consisting of 3891 Hindus, 2925 Muhammadans, and 41 Síkhs. Situated on the left bank of the Jhelum river, opposite Pind Dádan Khán. Immemorial mart for salt from mines on the other side of the river. The original town called Shamsábád, having been swept away by a flood, Asaf Khán, father-in-law of Sháh Jahán, founded the present one. Plundered by Núr-ud-dín, general of Ahmad Sháh in 1754; restored in 1787 by Mahá Sinh, father of Ranjít Sinh, who reopened the salt mart. Ill-built collection of narrow lanes and *bázárs*, the upper storeys of the houses almost touching one another. Enormous trade in salt from the MAYO MINES, all of which passes through its *bázárs*. Police station, town hall, *sarái*, rest-house. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £319, or 11⅛d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Miáni (*Meeanee*).—Small village in the Haidarábád (Hyderábád) *táluk* of Haidarábád District, Sind; 6 miles north of Haidarábád city. It was here that Sir Charles Napier, on the 17th of February 1843, with a force of 2800 men and 12 pieces of artillery, encountered a Baluch army numbering 22,000, strongly posted on the banks of the Fuleli. The enemy were totally routed, 5000 men being killed and wounded, and the whole of their ammunition, standards, and camp taken, with considerable stores and some treasure. A monument marks the scene of this great action, and on the eastern side of the pillar are inscribed the names of the officers, and the number of rank and file, who fell in battle. Miáni was at one time the headquarters of the Sind Camel Baggage Corps.

Mián Mír.—Cantonment in Lahore District, Punjab.—*See* MEEAN MEER.

Miánwáli.—Eastern *tahsíl* of Bannu District, Punjab; comprising the whole cis-Indus portion of the District, and forming a rough semicircle, with its base resting upon the river. Consists of a high upland or *thal* in the interior, with a level and fertile belt of alluvium skirting the Indus. Area, 1112 square miles; pop. (1868), 90,780; number of villages, 77.

Miánwáli.—Town in Bannu District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name. Lat. 32° 34′ 30″ N., long. 71° 32′ 50″ E.; pop. (1868), 4654, consisting of 670 Hindus and 3984 Muhammadans. Situated on high left bank of the Indus. Residence of notable Sayyid family, the Miáns of Miánwáli, descendants of a local Musalmán saint, and themselves possessing a great reputation for sanctity. *Tahsíli*, police station, Assistant Commissioner's court, dispensary, *sarái*.

Michni.—Village and fort in Pesháwar District, Punjab; situated on the left bank of the Kábul river close to where it issues from the hills. Lat. 34° 11′ 10″ N., long. 71° 30′ E. A straggling village of about 200 houses, 15 miles north of Pesháwar. The fort, which commands an important ferry over the Kábul river, was constructed in 1851-52 on account of the numerous raids on British territory by Mohmands from beyond the frontier. Ordinary garrison, about 130 cavalry and infantry, with 2 guns. Lieutenant Boulnois, in command of the party constructing the fort, was murdered here by Mohmands in January 1852. In March 1873, the commandant of the post was murdered in the vicinity while walking with a brother officer.

Midágesi. — Village in Túmkúr District, Mysore, at the eastern base of the Midágesi-dúrga. Lat. 13° 50′ N., long. 77° 14′ E.; pop. (1871), 1324. Said to be named after a princess, who committed *satí*, and was succeeded by a line of *ránís*. The place afterwards passed into the possession of the *paligárs* of Madgiri, and suffered much during the wars between Haidar Alí and the Marhattás.

Midnapur.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 21° 37′ 0″ and 22° 57′ 0″ N. lat., and between 86° 35′ 45″ and 88° 14′ 0″ E. long. Area, 5082 square miles; population in 1872, 2,540,963 persons. Midnapur forms the southernmost District of the Bardwán Division. It is bounded on the north by Bánkurá and Bardwán Districts; on the east by the Districts of Húglí and Howrah and by the river Húglí; on the south by the Bay of Bengal; on the south-west by the District of Balasor, on the west by the Native State of Morbhanj and the District of Singbhúm, and on the north-west by Mánbhúm District. The administrative headquarters are at MIDNAPUR town, on the Kásái river.

Physical Aspects.—Midnapur exhibits the threefold characteristics of a seaboard, a deltaic, and a high-lying non-fluvial District. Its general appearance is that of a large open plain, of which the greater part is under cultivation. In the northern portion of the District, the soil is poor, and there is little wood. The country along the western boundary, known as the Jungle Maháls, is undulating and picturesque; it is covered with extensive jungle, and is almost uninhabited. The eastern and south-eastern portions of Midnapur are swampy and richly cultivated, the Hijili division (consisting of the tract of land along the coast from the mouth of the Rúpnaráyan to the northern boundary of Balasor) being specially productive. This tract, which covers an area of more than a thousand square miles, is well watered, and produces large quantities of rice; close to the sea-coast there is a fringe of coarse grass. The chief rivers of the District are the HUGLI and its three tributaries, the RUPNARAYAN, the HALDI, and the RASULPUR. The Rúpnaráyan joins the Húglí opposite Húglí Point; its chief

tributary is the Silái, which flows in a very tortuous course through the northern part of the District. The Haldi rises within Midnapur, and falls into the Húglí near Nandígáon *thána*, in the Tamlúk Subdivision; it receives on its north bank two principal tributaries, the Káliághái and the Kásái, the latter a very tortuous stream, on which Midnapur town is situated. The Rasulpur river rises in the south-west of the District, and flows east and south-east till it joins the Húglí below Cowcolly (Geonkháli) Lighthouse, a little above where that river empties itself into the Bay of Bengal. The MIDNAPUR HIGH LEVEL CANAL is designed both for the purposes of navigation and irrigation. It runs almost due east and west, extending from the town of Midnapur to Ulubária on the Húglí, 16 miles below Calcutta, and affords a continuous navigable channel 53 miles in length. A full account of the canal, both as an engineering work and as a financial undertaking, will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal* (vol. iii. pp. 29-36). There is also a tidal canal for navigation 26 miles in length, extending from Rúpnáráyan to the Rasulpur river in the Hijili portion of the District. The jungles in the west of Midnapur yield lac, *tasar*-silk, wax, resin, firewood, charcoal, etc., and give shelter to large and small game—among the former being tigers, leopards, hyænas, bears, buffaloes, deer, and wild hogs; and among the latter, wild geese and ducks, snipes, ortolans, teal, hares, etc. Snakes are numerous.

History.—The early history of Midnapur centres round the ancient town of Tamlúk, which was in the beginning of the 5th century an important Buddhist settlement and maritime harbour. In the middle of the 7th century, Hiouen Thsang, the celebrated pilgrim from China, describes Tamlúk as a great port, with 10 Buddhist monasteries, a thousand monks, and a pillar by King Asoka 200 feet high. According to the earliest Hindu legend, it was distant from the coast about 8 miles; and so steadily has the process of land-making at the mouth of the Húglí gone on, that at present it is fully 60 miles from the sea. The earliest kings of Tamlúk belonged to the Peacock dynasty, and were Kshattriyas by caste. The last of this line, Nisankhá Náráyan, died childless, and at his death the throne was usurped by a powerful aboriginal chief named Kálu Bhuiyá, who was the founder of the line of Kaibartta or fisher-kings of Tamlúk. The Kaibarttas are generally considered to be descendants of the aboriginal Bhuiyás, who have embraced Hinduism. The present Kaibartta Rájá is the twenty-fifth in descent from the founder. Midnapur District, including western and southern Hijili, coincides almost entirely with the Muhammadan *sarkár* of Jaleswar. That *sarkár* paid to the Mughal Emperor a revenue of 12½ *lákhs* of rupees (say £1,250,000), and had for its capital the town of the same name, which is now situated in BALASOR DISTRICT. The first connection of the English with the District

dates from 1760. In that year, the East India Company deposed Mír Jafar Khán, whom they had placed on the throne of Bengal three years before (after the battle of Plassey), and elevated his son-in-law, Mír Kásim Khán, to the Governorship. As the price of his elevation, Mír Kásim ceded to the Company the three Districts of Midnapur, Chittagong, and Bardwán, which were then estimated to furnish a third of the whole revenue of Bengal. The position of the District rendered it specially liable to invasion by the Marhattás from Orissa, and to predatory raids by the landholders of the jungle tracts in the west. These jungle *zamíndárs*, who called themselves Rájás, gave our early officers much trouble. They were described in 1778 as 'mere freebooters, who plunder their neighbours and one another; and their tenants are banditti, whom they chiefly employ in their outrages. These depredations keep the *zamíndárs* and their servants continually in arms; for after the harvest is gathered, there is scarcely one of them who does not call his tenants together, either to defend his own property or to attack his neighbour.' Jaleswar town was for many years maintained as a frontier fort, to check the depredations of the Marhattás and of these robber Rájás; and even in the quiet and more civilised parts of the District, most of the wealthy landholders possessed fortified strongholds, which were necessary as places of retreat on occasion of the incursions of the Marhattás or the jungle chiefs. One of the most troublesome of these chiefs was the Rájá of Morbhanj, who held a *parganá* in the Jungle Maháls of Midnapur in addition to, and quite distinct from, his independent territory. The Government records contain frequent allusions to raids committed by him upon cultivators in the more settled parts of the District; and in 1783, soon after the rejection by the Governor-General of a territorial claim preferred by the Rájá, the latter was reported to be raising, in conjunction with another insurgent chief, an army for the invasion of the Company's Districts. A plan of joint hostilities was accordingly concerted with the Marhattá Governor of Orissa against the Morbhanj Rájá, who soon made his submission, and agreed to pay the yearly rental of £320 for his estate in Midnapur. Many changes of jurisdiction have taken place. Hijili, which had, up to 1836, been a separate Collectorate, was in that year annexed to Midnapur District, of which it has ever since remained part. Proposals have been made to separate it again, but, on the abolition of the Government salt monopoly, these were finally negatived. In 1872, the *parganás* of Chandrakoná and Bardá were transferred from Húglí to Midnapur.

Population.—Several attempts have been made to ascertain the population of Midnapur. One of the earliest was in 1802, when the population of the District as then constituted was estimated at a

million and a half. The first real Census was taken in 1872, when it was found that the population numbered 2,540,963 persons, dwelling in 12,962 villages and 446,045 houses, the average pressure of the population on the soil being 500 per square mile. The number of villages per square mile is 2·55, and of houses, 88; the number of persons per village, 196, and of persons per house, 5·7. The population varies, as regards density, very considerably in the different parts of the District. The most densely populated portions are the *thánás* bordering upon Húglí District, in each of which there are more than 850 persons to the square mile. In the north-western half of the District, including a portion of the jungle tract, the density varies from 250 to 300 per square mile; in the centre of the District, the average rises to 450 and 500; and in the southern *thánás* bordering upon the estuary of the Húglí, peculiar variations are observed as regards density, which in one of these *thánás* is 433, in another 544, and in a third 689 per square mile. The number of males is 1,257,194, or 49·5 per cent. of the population. Of children under 12, there are 822,345, of whom 457,733 are boys and 364,612 girls. The ethnical division of the people is returned as follows:—Europeans, 122 (of whom 120 are British); Eurasians, 93; non-Indian Asiatics, 19; aboriginal tribes, 139,108; semi-Hinduized aborigines, 244,705; Hindu castes and Hindus not recognising caste, 1,999,884; Muhammadans, 157,030; and Burmese (Maghs), 2. The aboriginal tribes found in Midnapur belong chiefly to the jungles and hills of Chutiá Nágpur and Bánkurá, and dwell for the most part in the west and south-west of the District; the most numerous of them are Santáls (96,921) and Bhumijs (35,344). Of high-caste Hindus, the Census returns show 136,500 (of whom 118,700 are Bráhmans and 17,003 Rájputs); and the number of Káyasths is given as 101,663. Among the semi-Hinduized aborigines, the most numerous are the Bágdís, a tribe of cultivators, fishermen, and day-labourers, who number 76,825. Belonging to agricultural castes, there are in Midnapur 1,018,686, including 692,140 Kaibarttas, who are the most numerous caste in the District. The great bulk of the population, 2,285,568, or 90 per cent., are Hindus; the Muhammadans number 157,047, or 6·2 per cent. of the population. The number of Christians is 613, of whom 396 are natives. The population is almost entirely rural. There are 32 towns or large villages with upwards of 2000 inhabitants, and of these, 4 municipalities contain more than 5000 inhabitants each. These 4 municipalities are MIDNAPUR town (pop. 31,491), CHANDRAKONA (21,311), GHATAL (15,492), and TAMLUK (5849). These municipalities have therefore a total population of 74,143, leaving 2,565,439 as forming the strictly rural population. Tamlúk, which is now little more than a village, was in ancient times a famous city, and figures in the

sacred writings of the Hindus as a kingdom of great antiquity. The earliest historical mention of the place is in the writings of the Chinese travellers Fa Hian and Hiouen Thsang, to which reference has already been made. Even after the overthrow of Buddhism, it remained a place of great maritime importance and wealth. Among the objects of note at Tamlúk are a temple of great sanctity and of much architectural interest, dedicated to Barga-bhímá or Kálí, and a Vishnuvite shrine. Two seaside villages, BIRKUL and CHANDPUR, the former 26 and the latter 14 miles from the Subdivisional station of Contai (Kánthí), have been proposed as watering-places and sanitaria for the people of Calcutta during the hot-weather months, but nothing has yet (1877) been done to provide suitable accommodation for visitors.

Agriculture.—Rice forms the staple crop of the District. It is of six kinds—(1) *áus*, the principal autumn crop; (2) *kákrí* and (3) *jhánjí*, also reaped in the autumn; (4) *haimantík* or *áman*, and (5) *nuan*, winter crops; and (6) *boro*, or spring rice. Of these, 79 varieties are named. The other crops of the District, are wheat, barley, peas, linseed, mustard, *tíl*, flax, hemp, sugar-cane, indigo, cotton, mulberry, and *pán*. The greater part of the area of the District is cultivated, chiefly with rice. Previous to the transfer of certain portions of Húglí to Midnapur District in 1872, the area was returned at 4836 square miles, of which 4302 square miles were under cultivation, 156 were uncultivated but cultivable, and 378 square miles were returned as uncultivable and jungle land. The area under indigo was estimated in 1877 at about 20,000 acres; the crop is cultivated largely in Bagrí and Bahádurpur, and the *parganás* in the Jungle Mahals. A fair average out-turn from an acre of ordinary rice land, paying a rental of 9s., is about 26 cwts. of paddy, valued at £2, 8s. The same land would also yield a second crop of pulses or oil-seeds, valued at 15s. an acre; and the value of the straw may be set down as about 12s.; so that the total value of the produce would be £3, 15s. Superior rice land, producing only one crop, and paying a rent of 18s. an acre, might give an out-turn of 70 cwts. of paddy per acre, worth £6, 6s. Rents of land vary according to the quality of the soil, position, etc.; the lowest rate for rice land is 10½d., and the highest about 18s. an acre. For sugar-cane land, rents vary from 3s. 6d. to £1, 18s. an acre. Irrigation is common in the District, and is chiefly effected from the High Level Canal, to which reference has already been made. Both wages and prices have risen considerably of late years. In 1860, coolies and agricultural labourers received 1½d. to 1⅞d. a day; now they earn 2¼d. to 2⅝d. Smiths and carpenters, who formerly received 3d. a day, now get 4½d., and the wage for bricklayers has risen from 2¼d. to 3d. and 3¾d. The ordinary *bázár* rate for the best cleaned rice is 6s. 9d. a cwt., and for common rice 4s. 4d. a cwt.; in 1860, the rates were about 25 per cent. cheaper.

Among the tenures of land peculiar to this District, may be mentioned *jálpái*, *páikán*, and *árzí piyádá's jágírs*. *Jálpái* lands are those which chiefly supplied fuel for boiling the brine from which salt was manufactured in the olden time. When Government monopolized the salt manufacture, it took these and other lands from the landholders, granting them remissions of rent and compensation for the loss of profits. The total area of *jálpái* lands in the District is 76,835 acres. *Páikán* lands are granted to *páiks* or village watchmen, and held either at a low quit-rent, or free of all rent except that represented by the service done by the holders to the *zamíndárs*. *Arzí piyádá's jágírs* are lands held revenue free, in lieu of salary, by the messengers and bailiffs attached to the Collector's office; the tenure is a very ancient one. A complete description of these, as well as of the more usual tenures prevalent in the District, will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. iii. pp. 86-100.

Natural Calamities.—Midnapur occasionally suffers from drought, but this is not, as a rule, of a serious character. On the other hand, floods, caused by the sudden rise of the rivers as well as by heavy rainfall, are common in the southern and eastern portions of the District, and are very disastrous in their results. Severe inundations occurred in 1823, 1831, 1832, 1833, 1834, 1848, 1850, 1864, 1866, and 1868. Some idea may be formed of the desolation occasioned, when it is stated that in the flood of 1834 more than half of the crops were swept away, over 7000 people—half the population of the flooded tract—were drowned, and 865 villages were inundated. The famine of 1866 was felt with greater severity in Midnapur than in any other part of Bengal proper. In 1864, the District had been devastated by a great cyclone, which swept away more than 33,000 of the population. The following year was one of extreme and protracted drought, and about half of the principal rice crop was lost. In October, the Deputy Magistrate reported that unless rain fell soon, 'he had no doubt there would be a famine, the like of which had not been seen or heard of for many years.' This gloomy forecast was unhappily fulfilled; and the great famine of 1866 literally decimated the population of the District. No accurate statistics of the mortality are available, but it was estimated by the Collector at about 50,000, or a tenth of the population in the tracts specially affected. The number of relief-centres established in the District from first to last was 23, and the average number of persons relieved daily was—in June, 5155; in July, 7442; in August, 9606; in September, 8752; in October, 6476; and in November, 4247. A sum of £14,700 was expended on relief to the starving poor, in addition to nearly £15,000 spent on relief works. Rice of any quality reached, during the famine, the price of £1, 1s. 10d. a cwt., and unhusked rice, 10s. 11d.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The commerce of the District is chiefly conducted by means of permanent markets, but a considerable local trade also goes on at fairs and religious gatherings. The principal exports are rice, silk, and sugar; the principal imports, cotton cloth and twist of European manufacture. The value of the exports and the imports is almost equal. The chief manufactures are indigo, silk, mats, and brass and copper utensils. The indigo of Midnapur, and specially that produced in the Jungle Mahâls, is of first-rate quality. The manufacture is almost entirely in the hands of Messrs. R. Watson & Company. The average out-turn of the District was estimated in 1877 at about 1800 *maunds*, valued at Rs. 200 to Rs. 275 (£20 to £27) per *maund*. The manufacture of salt was carried on by the Government until 1861, when the State relinquished the monopoly, leaving the manufacture to private persons, subject to a payment of salt duty. This duty amounted in 1873 to 8s. 10d. a cwt. The manufacture has greatly declined, the introduction of Liverpool salt, which is brought out to Calcutta at very low rates, having driven the native article out of the market. In 1786, the manufacture of salt in Hijili was estimated at over 31,116 tons. There were in 1871, 482 miles of road in Midnapur, of which 252 miles were maintained from imperial and 230 miles from local funds. There are no railways in Midnapur, and the only means of communication besides the roads and large rivers is the High Level Canal already referred to, by means of which Midnapur town is placed in direct communication with Calcutta.

Administration.—In 1790, the net revenue of Midnapur, exclusive of Hijili, which then formed a separate Collectorship, was £160,316, and the total civil expenditure, £36,681. In 1839-40, shortly after the addition of Hijili with its land revenue of £35,193 to Midnapur District, the total net revenue was £219,472, and the expenditure, £34,246. In 1870-71, the total net revenue amounted to £262,578, and the expenditure to £53,777. The land tax forms the principal source of revenue, amounting in 1870-71 to £202,070, or nearly three times what it was in 1790 (£80,791) without Hijili. Subdivision of property has gone on rapidly under British rule. In 1790, the District, which was then smaller than it now is, contained 999 estates, held by 1043 proprietors or coparceners, paying a total land revenue of £80,791, or an average payment by each proprietor of £77, 9s. By 1870-71, the number of estates had increased to 2808, and of proprietors to 6358; the average land revenue demand from each proprietor being £31, 15s. 7d. In 1805, there were only 2 magisterial courts and 2 covenanted English officers in the District; in 1870-71, there were 12 magisterial, 12 revenue, and 8 civil courts, and 6 European officers. For police purposes Midnapur is divided into 25 police circles (*thánás*).

In 1871, the regular police force numbered 849 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £13,617. There were also a municipal force of 100 men, costing £665, and a village watch of 10,015 men, maintained by grants of land and contributions from the people, at an estimated total cost, including both sources, of £14,021. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 10,964 officers and men, or 1 man to every 0·46 square mile of the area, or to every 231 of the population. The estimated total cost was £28,304, equal to an average of £5, 11s. 4d. per square mile, or 2⅝d. per head of the population. The total number of cases conducted by the police in the same year was 6123, and the percentage of convictions, 56·4 per cent. *Dakáiti* or gang-robbery is still not uncommon in the District; 21 cases occurred in 1871. In the same year, there were no fewer than 239 cases of salt smuggling, in which 553 persons were arrested, of whom 484 were finally convicted. There are 4 lock-ups in the District, besides the central jail at Midnapur. In 1870, the daily average prison population was 1096, and the average term of imprisonment, 401 days. Education has spread with great rapidity of late. In 1856-57, there were in the District only 14 Government and aided schools, with 1340 pupils; by 1870-71, the number of such schools had risen to 223, attended by 8125 pupils. In addition to these, there were in the latter year 1732 private and unaided schools, with an estimated attendance of 19,413 pupils. The District is divided into 4 administrative Subdivisions — namely, (1) the *sadr* or headquarters Subdivision; (2) Tamlúk; (3) Contai (Kánthí); and (4) Garbheta. These again are subdivided into 109 fiscal divisions (*parganás*). The four large municipalities already referred to, contain an aggregate population of 74,143 persons; the gross municipal income derived from them in 1871-72 was £2959, and the gross municipal expenditure, £2099; rate of municipal taxation, 9½d. per head of their population.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Midnapur does not differ from that of the Twenty-four Parganás. The average mean temperature is about 80° F., and the average annual rainfall about 66 inches. The prevailing diseases of the District are fevers, diarrhœa, dysentery, and cholera. Cholera is said to be endemic in the town of Midnapur; and in the epidemic form the disease is of frequent occurrence, generally breaking out in the hot season. A very serious epidemic of small-pox immediately followed the famine of 1866, and the inhabitants of Midnapur town suffered very severely. Epidemic fever similar to that generally known as the Bardwán fever also visits Midnapur; and in 1872, it assumed a very serious type. Between October of that year and the end of March 1873, the number of persons treated in the famine-stricken villages of Ghátál, Dáspur, Nárájol, and Sháhpur was

24,007, of whom 236 died. A detailed account of the fever is given in the *Statistical Account of Bengal* (vol. iv. pp. 179-190). A serious outbreak of cattle plague, which proved fatal to three-fourths of the animals affected, occurred in Midnapur in 1868.

Midnapur.—*Sadr* or headquarters Subdivision of Midnapur District, Bengal, lying between 21° 46′ 15″ and 22° 48′ 30″ N. lat., and between 86° 35′ 45″ and 87° 53′ 30″ E. long. Area, 2962 square miles; townships or villages, 7765; houses, 232,470. Pop. (1872), 1,276,388, of whom 1,129,446, or 88·5 per cent., were Hindus; 71,771, or 5·6 per cent., Muhammadans; 365 Christians; and 74,806, or 5·9 per cent., of other religious denominations. Proportion of males in total population, 49·4 per cent.; average density of population, 431 per square mile; average number of villages per square mile, 2·62; persons per village, 164; houses per square mile, 78; persons per house, 5·5. This Subdivision comprises the 11 police circles of Midnapur, Náráyangarh, Dántun, Gopíballabhpur, Jhárgáon, Bhímpur, Sálbani, Kespur, Dáspur, Debrá, and Sabang. In 1870-71, it contained 8 civil and 7 magisterial and revenue courts; the regular police consisted of 270, and the rural force of 2650 men; the Midnapur town police numbered 79; the separate cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £17,770, 6s.

Midnapur.—Chief town and administrative headquarters of District of same name, Bengal; situated on the north bank of the Kásái river, in lat. 22° 24′ 48″ N., and long. 87° 21′ 12″ E. Formally declared the headquarters station of the District in 1783. Estimated pop. in 1837, 12,839; in 1869, 27,676; as ascertained by Census of 1872, 31,491, consisting of 23,831 Hindus, 7232 Muhammadans, 273 Christians, and 155 'others.' The town has a large *bázár*, with commodious public offices, and handsome European residences, some of them old and stately. It is healthy, dry, well supplied with water, and has some charming views in the immediate neighbourhood. An American Mission maintains an excellent training school, together with a printing press, and has founded several village schools in the District. Its efforts have been particularly successful among the Santáls, and some of the earliest and most valuable works on that language have issued from the Midnapur Mission press. A brisk manufacture of brass and copper utensils takes place in the town; and it forms the local centre of a large indigo and silk industry, conducted by Messrs. Watson & Co. in the surrounding District. It is connected with Calcutta by a canal and by a road to Ulubária on the Húglí, and thence by river or road to Calcutta, 68 miles distant. The high road from Calcutta to Orissa passes through the city, which is provided with a travellers' resting-house. A church, built in 1851, was consecrated in 1855; a charitable dispensary, established in 1835, affords relief annually to nearly 400 in-door and 5000 out-door patients. The Government and aided

schools, English and vernacular, are numerously attended, and supply an excellent education at a small cost to the citizens. Midnapur has been constituted a municipality; municipal income (1876-77), £1775; rate of taxation, 11½d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Midnapur High Level Canal.—Extends from Midnapur town to Ulubária on the Húglí, 16 miles below Calcutta. Navigable channel of 53 miles nearly due east and west, inclusive of the crossings of the rivers Kásái, Rúpnaráyan, and Dámodar. Exclusive of these crossings, the total length of canal cutting is 48 miles. It commences in lat. 22° 24′ N., and long. 87° 23′ E., and joins the Rúpnaráyan river in lat. 22° 26′ N., and long. 87° 55′ 30″ E. Total estimated cost of the work, including interest, £931,000, of which £579,793, exclusive of interest, had been expended up to 1873-74, when the main canal was opened. The canal is designed for both irrigation and navigation; the receipts from irrigation, as estimated in 1873, being about four times those from navigation.—For full details regarding the various works connected with the canal, and its financial results, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. iii. pp. 29-36.

Mihndháwal.—Town in Basti District, North-Western Provinces. —*See* MENDHAWAL.

Mihrauni.—Eastern *tahsíl* of Lálitpur District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a poor and unfertile plain, stretching down from the Vindhyán range towards the south, and much broken by stony hills and scrub jungle. Area, 888 square miles, of which only 172 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 93,664; land revenue, £7238; total Government revenue, £8153; rental paid by cultivators, £14,476; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 3d.

Mihri.—Village in Champáran District, Bengal; situated on the main road from Muzaffarpur to Motíhári. Pop. (1872), 3590. It is supposed to have been the *sadr* or chief station in North Behar when the East India Company first acquired the Provinces. Noted for a strong-flavoured tobacco, the seed of which is said to have been imported long ago by the European officer formerly stationed here.

Mihrpur.—Subdivision of Nadiyá District, Bengal, lying between 23° 36′ and 24° 11′ N. lat., and between 88° 20′ and 88° 55′ E. long. Area, 627 square miles; towns, 475; houses, 57,122; pop. (1872), 307,684, of whom 122,727 were Hindus, 181,633 Muhammadans, 3212 Christians, and 112 'others' not classified. Number of persons per square mile, 491; villages per square mile, 0·76; houses per square mile, 91; inmates per house, 5·4; proportion of males, 48·7 per cent. This Subdivision comprises the 4 police circles of Teháta, Mihrpur, Karímpur, and Gángni. In 1870-71, it contained 1 revenue and magisterial court; the regular police was 65 strong, and the village watch, 710; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £4237.

The Subdivision is the seat of an important branch of the Church Missionary Society.

Mihrpur. — Headquarters of the Subdivision of the same name, Nadiyá District, Bengal; situated on the Bhairab river, in lat. 23° 46′ 35″ N., and long. 88° 40′ 15″ E. Pop. (1872), 5562. Municipal income (1876-77), £213; rate of taxation, 9½d. per head of population. Manufacture of brass utensils; dispensary.

Míkír Hills.—Tract in Nowgong District, Assam, at the foot of the Nágá Hills, occupied by the aboriginal tribe of Míkírs. This tribe, whose communities extend across the Nágá Hills from Nowgong into Cáchár, are said to have originally migrated from the Jáintia Hills. Their present headquarters is in Nowgong District, where they number 34,583 persons. They are universally described as the most pacific and industrious of all the hill races. They cultivate their crops of rice and cotton on clearings amid the jungle, according to the nomadic system of agriculture known as *júm.* Their chief peculiarity is that several families crowd together in the same house, with the object, it is said, of evading the house tax, which is levied at the rate of Rs. 2. 4. (4s. 6d.) per house. They carry on a brisk traffic with the Hindus of the plains, bartering cotton and jungle products for salt and piece-goods. The Míkírs were found very useful as coolies in the Lushái expedition of 1871-72.

Milam (or *Juhár*). —Valley in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces, and Pass over the main Himálayan range into Thibet. Lat. 30° 25′ 30″ N., long. 80° 10′ 15″ E. According to Thornton, it is inhabited by Bhutias, who, however, have to a great extent adopted the Hindu customs and religion. Elevation of the crest above sea level, 17,270 feet.

Milmillia.—Forest reserve of *sál* trees (Shorea robusta) in Kámrúp District, Assam, on the left bank of the Kulsí river. Area, 1400 acres, or 2·1 square miles.

Miráj (SENIOR BRANCH).—Native State within the British Political Agency of the Southern Marhattá Country, Bombay. It consists of three divisions—a group of villages in the valley of the Krishna; a second group in the south of Dhárwár District; and a third in the midst of villages of the Sholápur District. Area, 340 square miles; pop. (1872), 82,201. The portion of the State which is watered by the Kistna (Krishna) is flat and very rich; the remaining parts lie low, and are surrounded by undulating lands, and occasionally intersected by ridges of hills. The prevailing soil is black. Irrigation is carried on from rivulets, tanks, and wells. As in the rest of the Deccan, the climate is always dry, and oppressively hot from March to May. The principal products are millet, wheat, gram, sugar-cane, and cotton. Coarse country cloth and native musical instruments are the chief manufac-

tures. Cholera and small-pox are prevalent. Miráj was a grant by the Peshwá to a member of the Patwardhán family. In 1820, the estate was, with the sanction of the British Government, divided into four shares, and the service of horsemen proportionately assigned to each. Two of these shares lapsed in 1842 and 1845, from failure of male issue; the two others remain. The present (1876-77) chief of the Senior Branch is Gangádhar Ráo Ganpat, a Bráhman. A minor of twelve, he is being educated under the supervision of the Assistant Political Agent of Kolhápur. The chief ranks as a first-class Sardár in the Southern Marhattá country, and has power to try for capital offences, without the express permission of the Political Agent, his own subjects only. He enjoys an estimated gross yearly revenue of £27,646; pays tribute of £1256 to the British Government; and maintains a military force of 597 men. The family holds a *sanad* authorizing adoption, and follows the rule of primogeniture in matters of succession. There are 27 schools in the State, with a total of 1359 pupils.

Miráj (Junior Branch).—Native State within the British Political Agency of the Southern Marhattá Country, Bombay. It consists of four divisions—a group of villages adjoining the Bankápur Subdivision of Dhárwár District; a second near the Tásgáon Subdivision of Satára District; a third near the Pandharpur Subdivision of Sholápur District; and a fourth in Poona District. Area, 208 square miles; pop. (1872), 35,601. The soil is generally black. Indian millet, wheat, gram, and cotton are the chief products; and coarse country cloth is the principal manufacture. The history of this branch of the family is the same as that of the Senior Branch (*vide supra*). The present (1876-77) chief of Miráj (Junior Branch), Harihar Ráo Lakshman, is a Bráhman. He ranks as a first-class Sardár in the Southern Marhattá country, and has power to try for capital offences, without the express permission of the Political Agent, his own subjects only. He is twenty-seven years of age, and administers his State in person. He enjoys an estimated gross yearly revenue of £15,964; pays tribute of £641 to the British Government; and maintains a military force of 289 men. The family holds a *sanad* authorizing adoption, and follows the rule of primogeniture in matters of succession. There are 2 schools.

Miráj.—Town in the State (Senior Branch) of the same name in the British Political Agency of the Southern Marhattá Country, Bombay, and residence of the Chief; situated in lat. 16° 49′ 10″ N., and long. 74° 41′ 20″ E., near the Kistna (Krishna) river, a few miles south-east of Sangli. Pop. (1872), 22,520.

Miránpur.—Town in Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 29° 17′ 15″ N., long. 77° 59′ 25″ E.; pop. (1872), 5924, consisting of 3883 Hindus and 2041 Muhammadans. Distant from

Muzaffarnagar 20 miles south-east. Stands in the midst of country watered by the Ganges Canal. Famous family of Sayyids, descendants of Haidar Khán. Attacked by the Bijnaur rebels on 4th February 1858, but successfully defended by the British troops, who drove the mutineers back.

Miránpur Katra.—Town in Sháhjahánpur District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 6529, consisting of 4009 Hindus and 2520 Muhammadans. Situated in lat. 28° 2′ N., long. 79° 43′ E. (Thornton), 3 miles east of the Baighal river, and 20 miles west of Sháhjahánpur. In 1774, the British army lent to Shujá-ud-daulá, Nawáb of Oudh, utterly defeated the Rohillás at this spot.

Miranzái.—*Tahsíl* and town in Kohát District, Punjab.—*See* HANGU.

Mírath.—Division, District, *tahsíl*, and town in the North-Western Provinces.—*See* MEERUT.

Mírganj.—North-western *tahsíl* of Bareli (Bareilly) District, North-Western Provinces, bordering on the Rámpur State. Area, 153 square miles, of which 112 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 97,551; land revenue, £13,489; total Government revenue, £24,682; incidence of land revenue per acre, 2s. 8⅞d.

Mírkásarái.—Town and police station (*thánú*) of the headquarters Subdivision, Noákhálí District, Bengal; recently transferred to this District from Chittagong. Situated in lat. 22° 46′ 4″ N., and long. 91° 37′ 10″ E., on the Imperial High Road from Dacca to Chittagong. Pop. (1872), under 5000.

Mírpur.—*Táluk* in Rohri Deputy Collectorate, Shikárpur District, Sind, lying between 27° 19′ and 28° 8′ N. lat., and between 69° 13′ and 70° 11′ E. long. Area, 1720 square miles; pop. (1872), 42,127; gross revenue (1873-74), £8865.

Mírpur.—Town in Rohri Deputy Collectorate, Shikárpur District, Sind, and headquarters of the *múkhtiárkár* of the *táluk* of the same name; 55 miles north-east of Rohri. Lat. 28° 1′ 15″ N., long. 69° 35′ E. Contains a *cutcherry* and a *tápádár's* office; also a travellers' bungalow, post office, and police lines. Pop. (1872), 1425. Small trade in grain and *ghí*. The town was founded by Mír Musú Khán Tálpur about 1739 A.D.

Mírpur.—Town in the Frontier District, and formerly the second largest place in Upper Sind; situated in the Thul *táluk*, 20 miles east of Jacobábád, in lat. 28° 11′ 0″ N., long. 68° 46′ 0″ E. It has a *thánú* or police circle, and is the headquarters of a *tápádár*. Its population is now reduced to 750, owing to the destructive floods of 1874. Considerable trade in grain.

Mírpur Batoro.—*Táluk* in Sháhbandar Deputy Collectorate, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind, lying between 24° 28′ and 25° N.

lat., and between 68° 12′ and 68° 27′ E. long. Area, 322 square miles; pop. (1872), 31,645; gross revenue (1873-74), £9685.

Mírpur Batoro.—Chief town and municipality of the *táluk* of the same name in Sháhbandar Deputy Collectorate, Sind; situated in lat. 24° 44′ N., and long. 68° 17′ 30″ E., on the Fatiah Canal, 13 miles north-east of Sujáwal, and 26 north of Mugalbhin. Headquarters of a *múkhtiárkár* and a *tápádár*. Contains a *bázár*, *dharmsála*, etc. Pop. (1872), 2846. Large export trade in grain; transit trade in cloth, *ghí*, and miscellaneous articles. The main industries of the place are dyeing, and the manufacture of country liquor.

Mírpur Khás.—*Táluk* of Hála Deputy Collectorate, Haidarábád (Hyderabad) District, Sind, lying between 25° 12′ 45″ and 25° 48′ N. lat., and between 68° 54′ and 69° 17′ 30″ E. long. Area, 515 square miles; pop. (1872), 22,449; gross revenue (1873-74), £4734.

Mírpur Khás.—Chief town and municipality of the *táluk* of the same name in Hála Deputy Collectorate, Sind; situated in lat. 25° 31′ 45″ N., and long. 69° 3′ E., on the Letwah Canal, and also on the high road to Haidarábád and Umarkot, 38 miles south-east of Hála, and 41 miles east-north-east from Haidarábád *viâ* Alahyar-jo-Tanda (17 miles distant). Contains a Deputy Collector's bungalow, a subordinate judge's court, and the usual public offices. Pop. (1872), 1280; municipal revenue (1873-74), £199. Local trade in grain, cotton (said to be the finest in Sind), and piece-goods, valued at £4200. The annual value of the transit trade is estimated at £5700. Mírpur is a comparatively modern town, having been built in 1806 by Mír Alí Murád Tálpur. It was the capital of Mír Sher Muhammad Khán Tálpur, whose army was defeated in 1843 by Sir Charles Napier at Dabba (Dabo) near Haidarábád.

Mírpur Sákro.—*Táluk* in Jerruck (Jhirak) Deputy Collectorate, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind. Area, 1112 square miles; pop. (1872), 22,614; gross revenue (1873-74), £5350. The town of Mírpur Sákro lies in lat. 24° 33′ N., and long. 67° 40′ E.

Mirta.—Town in Jodhpur State, Rájputána.—*See* MERTA.

Mírzápur.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 23° 51′ 30″ and 25° 31′ N. lat., and between 82° 9′ 15″ and 83° 36′ E. long. Area, 5217 square miles; population in 1872, 1,015,826 persons. Mírzápur forms the southernmost District of the Benares Division. It is bounded on the north by Jaunpur and Benares; on the east by the Bengal Districts of Sháhábád and Lohárdagá; on the south by the Sargujá Tributary State; and on the west by Allahábád District and the territories of the Mahárájá of Rewah. The administrative headquarters are at the city of MIRZAPUR.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Mírzápur extends over a larger area than any other in the North-Western Provinces, and exhibits a

corresponding diversity of natural features. It has an extreme length of 102 miles from north to south, and an average width of 52 miles from east to west. The mountain ranges of the Vindhyás and the Káimur, crossing it in the latter direction, mark out the country into three well-defined physical divisions. The tract north of the Vindhyás forms part of the alluvial valley of the Ganges, and extends across either bank of the sacred river. The portion which lies upon its left side consists of a perfectly level plain, presenting the usual characteristics of the Gangetic lowlands; but the southern half slopes upward gradually from the river to the Vindhyán Hills, whose sandstone spurs descend to the bank at Kantit and Chanár (Chunar), while projections and ravines run down into the plain along its whole southern boundary. The central plateau between the Vindhyás, which overlook the Ganges, and the Káimur range, which overhangs the valley of the Són to the south, has a length of about 70 miles, with a breadth varying from 20 to 30 miles. It consists of a tableland with an elevation of from 300 to 500 feet above the plain, or from 600 to 800 feet above sea level. The Karamnása takes its rise in this middle region, but does not become a considerable river until it debouches upon the Gangetic plain near Mangror. After passing the crest of the Káimur Hills, a more rugged, imposing, and elevated range than the Vindhyás, an abrupt descent of 400 or 500 feet leads down into the third tract, the valley of the Són and its tributaries. The basin of the main river itself lies at the foot of the Káimur chain, and comprises a strip of alluvial land stretching about 4 miles on either side of its bed. Next, as the traveller moves southward, come the transverse valleys of its affluents, the Rehand and Kanhar, flowing at right angles to the Són, and separated from one another by low hill ridges. Finally, in the extreme south, the Singrauli basin, between the Rehand and the Pángan, consists of a low-lying depression, composed of metamorphic rocks, overlaid in part by glacial boulder beds and coal strata. Alluvial deposits of black loam fill in the centre of the basin. The Són is navigable during the rainy season, when rafts of wood and bamboos are floated down to Patná, near its mouth. The eastern portion of the central plateau has extensive stretches of low jungle, interspersed with larger trees; while the Són valley is widely covered with forest, and presents beautiful scenery, deep and thickly wooded gorges from the Káimur range penetrating far into the hollow beneath, forming a fine contrast with its flat and tame appearance. Mírzápur is the only District of the North-Western Provinces which stretches to any great extent from the alluvial Gangetic plain into the central rock-area of India; and its geological features comprise all the principal formations of the peninsula. Tigers, leopards, and bears occur commonly in the southern jungles; while spotted deer, *nílgái,* and antelopes abound in many parts.

History.—Mírzápur has always formed part of the Benares Province, and its annals under the Rájás of Benares belong rather to the account of that District. To this day, the whole of the Bhadohi and Mangror *parganás* are included among the family domains of the Mahárájá, who exercises considerable revenue powers within his ancestral estates. The earlier chronicles of the District centre around the towns of MIRZAPUR and CHANAR. The latter stronghold, perched upon a projecting sandstone outlier of the Vindhyán range, derives its name from the footprint of a deity, who descended upon the spot during the heroic period. Long afterwards, Bharti Náth, King of Ujjain, a younger brother of the famous hero Vikramáditya, became a religious devotee, and settled upon this hill. His shrine still remains one of the holiest places in India. At a more historic date, Prithwi Ráj took up his abode at Chanár, and brought the surrounding tract under cultivation. After his death, Khair-ud-dín Sabuktagín conquered the country from his successor, and a mutilated inscription over the gateway of Chanár fort commemorates its ransom from the hands of a Musalmán invader. It fell once more before a general of Muhammad Sháh, who appointed a Bahelia as governor of the fort. The family of the Bahelias retained the office, with a permanence very rare in Indian history, till the surrender of the fortress to the British after the battle of Buxar (Baksár) in 1764. Sher Khán, the Rohillá, obtained possession of Chanár in 1530 by marrying the widow of its late commandant; and two years later, Humáyun besieged and captured the place. In 1575, the Mughals again took Chanár, and settled the neighbouring country. About 1750, it came into the hands of Rájá Balwant Sinh of Benares. Unsuccessfully besieged by Major Munro in 1763, Chanár passed under British rule after the victory of Buxar in the succeeding year. In 1781, Warren Hastings, when trying to coerce Rájá Chait Sinh of Benares, had to take refuge at Chanár from August 21 to September 30; when Cháit Sinh fled to Gwalior, after a vain resistance to Major Popham's force at Latífpur. After the establishment of Mahip Náráyan Sinh as Rájá of Benares in the place of his rebellious kinsman, the District disappears from history till the date of the Sepoy Mutiny in 1857. At first only a Síkh guard had charge of the treasury at Mírzápur, but after the outbreaks at Benares and Jaunpur on 1st and 5th June, Colonel Pott arrived with part of the 47th Native Infantry. The Síkhs were called in to Allahábád on the 8th, and next day, strong rumours of intended attacks by the rebels being current, all the officers, except Mr. Tucker, retired to Chanár. On the 10th, Mr. Tucker attacked and defeated the insurgents; and on the 13th, a detachment of the 1st Madras Fusiliers arrived at Mírzápur, and destroyed Gaura, a stronghold of the river *dakáits.* In Bhadohi *parganá*, Adwant Sinh, head of the Thákurs, rebelled, but was captured and hanged. The Thákurs vowed vengeance,

attacked Mr. Moore, Joint-Magistrate of Mírzápur, at Páli factory, and murdered him, together with two planters, while endeavouring to make his escape. On 26th June, the Bánda and Fatehpur fugitives arrived and passed on to Allahábád. On 11th August, the Dinapur mutineers entered the District, but were put to flight by three companies of the 5th, and left Mírzápur at once. Kuár Sinh made an incursion on 8th September, but the people compelled him to pass on to Bánda. On the 16th, when the 50th Native Infantry mutinied at Nagod, the officers and 200 faithful men marched through Rewah to Mírzápur. No further disturbance occurred till Mr. Tucker made an expedition against Bijáigarh in January 1858, drove the rebels across the Són, and re-established order, which was not again disturbed.

Population. — The Census of 1853 returned the total number of inhabitants at 1,104,315. By 1865, the returns had decreased to 1,055,735, showing a decrease of 48,580, or 4·6 per cent., although the area had increased meanwhile by 48 square miles, or 0·9 per cent. The enumeration of 1872 disclosed a further fall to the number of 1,015,826, being a decrease of 39,909 persons, or 3·9 per cent., although the area had again increased by 17 square miles, or 0·3 per cent. The total decrease for the whole 19 years accordingly amounted to 88,489 persons, or 8·7 per cent., in spite of an increase of area amounting to 65 square miles, or 1·2 per cent. The density of population, which was 214 persons per square mile in 1853, fell to 203 in 1865, and to 195 in 1872. No apparent reason for these facts can be alleged, except the decadence in commercial prosperity of Mírzápur city. The Census of 1872 extended over an area of 5217 square miles, and it exhibited a total population of 1,015,826 persons, distributed among 4104 villages or townships, and inhabiting an aggregate of 219,059 houses. From these data the following averages may be calculated:—Persons per square mile, 195; villages per square mile, 8; houses per square mile, 41; persons per village, 248; persons per house, 4·6. Classified according to sex, there were (exclusive of non-Asiatics)—males, 520,496; females, 494,797; proportion of males, 51·3 per cent. Classified according to age, there were (exclusive of non-Asiatics), under 12 years—182,847 boys and 158,560 girls; total children, 341,407, or 33·62 per cent. As regards religion, the District still remains essentially Hindu, the adherents of that creed numbering 949,644, or 93·5 per cent.; as against 64,899 Muhammadans, or 6·5 per cent. The Christians numbered 750. The ethnical division of the Hindus yielded the following results: — Bráhmans, 161,372; Rájputs, 54,868; Banias, 26,212; Ahírs, 89,567; Chamárs, 111,752; Káyasths, 11,756; and Kurmís, 51,221. Among the Musalmáns, Shaikhs numbered 34,357; Sayyids, 1209; Mughals, 322; and Patháns, 5651. The total agricultural population was returned at 529,683. Only 3 towns had a

population of more than 5000 persons—namely, MIRZAPUR, 67,274; CHANAR, 10,154; and AHRAURA, 9091. The population south of the Káimur range is very rude and uncivilised, and no towns occur in that portion of the District.

Agriculture.—Out of an assessed area of 3048 square miles, 1238 are uncultivable, 497 cultivable waste, and 1313 cultivated. The part of Mírzápur which lies in the Ganges valley north of the Vindhyás, is very highly cultivated and thickly populated on both sides of the river, like other Districts of the Benares Division; but the tract south of the Vindhyás, including the central plateau and the country beyond the Káimur Hills, consists largely of ravines and forests, with a very sparse population. The soil of the Ganges valley is exceedingly fertile, except where the sandstone rocks jut out from the Vindhyán plateau. The fine black soil which fills the hollow of the central tableland also produces good crops of rice, wheat, barley, and gram. The two usual harvests, *kharíf* in autumn, and *rabí* in spring, have their ordinary staples of cotton, rice, millets, and *moth*, or of wheat, barley, oats, and pulses respectively. Barley grows over the whole District, even in the wildest parts. The rains are usually so abundant as to supersede the necessity of irrigation for the autumn harvest; but the spring crops require artificial watering, which they obtain in sufficient quantities from the numerous tanks and wells. Rents run from 12s. to £3, 12s. 6d. an acre; irrigation costs from 9s. to 12s. an acre; and the average produce amounts to about 960 lbs. of grain, sold at 50 lbs. per rupee. The land tenures belong to the three standard types of the North-Western Provinces. Wages have risen largely within the last twenty years: between 1850 and 1872, those of bricklayers have increased from 3d. to 6d. per diem; of blacksmiths, from 1½d. to 3d. or 4½d.; of agricultural labourers, from 1½d. to 3d. or 4d. Prices of food grains ruled as follows in 1876:—Wheat, 23 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 10d. per cwt.; rice, 11 *sers* per rupee, or 10s. 2d. per cwt.; *joár*, 31 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 7d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 29 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 10d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Though the northern part of the District suffered severely from the great famine of 1783, none of the droughts within the present century have seriously affected its prosperity. Even the disastrous season of 1868-69, which proved so calamitous to the Benares Division generally, was mitigated in Mírzápur by a timely fall of rain in September. In 1864 and 1865, the rains were scanty, and most of the rice crop perished; but Government suspended one-fifth of the revenue demand for the year, and during the succeeding prosperous seasons most of the cultivators recovered their positions. The south of the District, however, suffered severely in the drought of 1873. Hail and blight often affect the spring harvest. The Ganges valley is not liable to inundation within the borders of Mírzápur.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The city of Mírzápur formerly carried on a flourishing business in cotton, grain, and other raw materials; but since the opening of the through railway to Bombay *viâ* Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), and the rise of Cawnpore to commercial importance, much of its trade has migrated elsewhere. Considerable manufactures of shell-lac, brass-ware, and carpets still exist. The Ganges forms one of the main channels for merchandise, but a large quantity of goods are sent southward towards the Deccan (Dakshin). The East Indian Railway traverses the northern portion of the District, from east to west, running close to the right bank of the Ganges throughout its course. It has a stretch of 32 miles within the borders of Mírzápur, with stations at Pahári, Mírzápur city, and Gáipura. The Grand Trunk Road also traverses the District for 23 miles. The Great Deccan Road, once of the first importance, but now comparatively deserted, leaves Mírzápur city at its southern extremity, and crosses the Vindhyás by a pass at Tára Ghát. Numerous other roads connect the smaller towns and villages.

Administration.—The District staff ordinarily comprises a Collector-Magistrate, a Joint Magistrate, an Assistant Magistrate, a Deputy Magistrate and Collector, and a Deputy Superintendent for the domains of the Mahárájá of Benares, together with the usual medical, fiscal, and constabulary officials. Mírzápur forms the headquarters of a civil and sessions judge, whose jurisdiction does not extend beyond this District. The whole amount of revenue, imperial, municipal, and local, raised within the District in 1876 was £114,377, out of which sum the land tax contributed £84,503. The total police force in 1875 numbered 884 men, maintained at a cost of £12,084; being at the rate of 1 policeman to every 5·88 square miles of the area, and every 1148 of the population. This force was further supplemented by a body of 1360 *chaukídárs* or village watchmen, maintained at a cost of £4942. The District jail at Mírzápur contained during the same year a daily average of 237 prisoners, of whom 221 were male and 16 female. Education was then carried on by means of 191 schools (12 of which were for girls), with an aggregate roll of 6653 pupils, being at the rate of 1 school to every 27·31 square miles of area, and 6·5 pupils to every thousand of the population. The total cost amounted to £3896, of which £1668 was paid from provincial and £2228 from local sources. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is subdivided into 3 *tahsíls* and 12 *parganás.* Municipalities exist at Mírzápur city and Chanár. Their aggregate revenue in 1875-76 amounted to £7185; from taxes, £5856, or 1s. 3¾d. per head of the population (89,518) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Mírzápur is slightly warmer and damper than that of Districts farther north and west. The hilly

southern tract especially suffers from excessive heat, and Chanár has also a bad character as a summer station. The rainfall exceeds the average of the North-Western Provinces, owing probably to the forests and hill ranges with which the District abounds. The mean annual rainfall for the eleven years ending 1871 amounted to 42·7 inches; the maximum during that period being 54·1 inches in 1870-71, and the minimum 25·5 inches in 1864-65. The total number of deaths recorded in 1875 was 22,612, or 22·27 per thousand; the average death-rate for the previous six years was returned at 17·95 per thousand; but these figures cannot be implicitly accepted. Six Government charitable dispensaries—at Mírzápur, Narghát, Dudhi, Korh, Robertsganj, and Chanár—afforded relief in 1875 to 34,454 persons, of whom 582 were in-patients.

Mírzápur.—Western *tahsíl* of Mírzápur District, North-Western Provinces; stretching on either side of the river Ganges, and extending southward as far as the Vindhyán range. Area, 1160 square miles, of which 353 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 361,015; land revenue, £32,171; total Government revenue, £34,081; rental paid by cultivators, £73,662; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 10⅝d.

Mírzápur.—Municipal city and administrative headquarters of Mírzápur District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 67,274, consisting of 55,917 Hindus, 11,053 Musalmáns, and 304 'others.' Situated in lat. 25° 9′ 43″ N., and long. 82° 38′ 10″ E., on the south or right bank of the Ganges, 56 miles below Allahábád, and 45 miles (by railway) above Benares. Up to quite recent years, Mírzápur was the largest mart in Hindustán for grain and cotton; but of late its commercial importance has rapidly decreased, owing to the establishment of through railway communication with Bombay *viâ* Jabalpur, and the rise of Cawnpore to the position of a mercantile centre. Handsome river front, lined with stone *gháts* or flights of stairs, and exhibiting numerous mosques, Hindu temples, and dwelling-houses of the wealthier merchants, with highly decorated façades, and richly carved balconies and door-frames. The interior of the town, however, does not keep up the promise of the river-side, being mainly composed of mud huts. Large wells, of tasteful architecture, occur in the principal streets. Suburbs contain the residences of the wealthier classes. Manufacture of shell-lac, giving employment to about 4000 persons; also of brass-ware and carpets. Imports of grain, sugar, cloth, metals, fruit, spices, tobacco, lac, salt, and cotton; exports of the same articles, with manufactured lac-dye, shell-lac, and *ghí*. Station on East Indian Railway. Government offices, District jail, charitable dispensary, etc. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £6345; from taxes, £5325, or 1s. 4½d. per head of population (77,229) within municipal limits.

Míshmí Hills.—Tract of country on the eastern frontier of Assam,

occupied by a hill tribe of the same name. The Míshmí settlements are estimated to extend from 27° 40′ to 28° 40′ N. lat., and from 96° to 97° 30′ E. long. They are found as far south as the Nemlang river, a tributary of the Irawadi. Thence they sweep round to the east of the great mountain range called the Dapha Bhum, across the Brahmaputra valley, north to the confines of Thibet, and west to the Digáru river. Colonel Dalton conjectures that the Míshmís are connected with the Mian-tze, the aborigines of Yunan. They are a short, sturdy race, with a fair complexion and features of a softened Mongolian type. Their dress is made of striped cloth; their armour consists of helmet, sword, and spear; and the women wear ornaments of beads and silver. They are devoted to pastoral life rather than to agriculture, and they are all keen traders. The Míshmís are divided into many clans, of which that called Táin is settled nearest to the British frontier. The more remote clans have only been visited by Captain Wilcox in 1827, and by Monsieur Krick, the French missionary, in 1851, and again in 1854. In his second expedition, M. Krick was treacherously killed by a Míshmí chief named Kaisá, and a small British expedition was despatched under Lieutenant F. G. Eden to avenge his death. The farther clans are described as occupying fertile valleys, planted with all sorts of fruit-trees, and as possessing herds of oxen, horses, asses, and mules. The intervening country consists of precipitous mountain gorges, where the traveller often has to pass across frail suspension bridges of bamboo. The Chalikátá, or crop-haired Míshmís, whose proper name is said to be Midhi, occupy the hill country immediately north of the station of Sadiyá in Lakhimpur District, along the Dibong river. They are much dreaded by their neighbours in the plains as kidnappers of women and children, and no European has yet penetrated their native fastnesses. The most valued jungle product brought down to the plains by Míshmí traders is the *coptis* or *míshmí titá*, a bitter drug possessing periodic properties.

Misrikh.—*Parganá* in Sítápur District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Maholí; on the east by Sítápur, Rámkot, and Machhrehta; on the south by Kurauna and Aurangábád; and on the west by the Kurauna and Gumti rivers. Area, 126 square miles, or 81,160 acres, of which 42,578 acres are under cultivation, 25,042 cultivable, 3770 rent free, and 9770 acres barren. Pop. (1869), 41,319, viz. 37,976 Hindus and 3343 Musalmáns. With the exception of a sandy tract along the banks of the Kurauna and Gumti rivers, the soil of the *parganá* is, on the whole, good. Like the rest of the District, it is a well-wooded plain, without lakes, hills, or forests. The incidence of the Government land revenue demand is at the rate of 3s. 2⅜d. per acre of cultivated area, 1s. 11⅛d. per acre of assessed area, and 1s. 8⅛d. per acre of total area. Means of communication are afforded by two roads

which intersect the *parganá*, and by the Gumti river. Bi-weekly markets in 3 villages. Misrikh contains 139 demarcated villages, of which 108 are held under *zamíndári* tenure, thus distributed:—Panwárs, 35; Gaurs, 45; Káyasths, 10; Bráhmans, 6; Gosáins, 3; Musalmáns, 8; and Ahban, 1. The remaining 31 villages form the *tálukdári* estates of Mírzá Ahmad Beg of Kutabnagar and Rájá Shamsher Bahádur of Aút. The *parganá* derives its name from the town (*vide infra*). The original proprietors of the soil were Ahban Kshattriyas, whose dynasty expired 200 years ago, on the death of Rájá Mán Sinh. The founder of the estate was Sopí Chánd, whose brother, Gopí Chánd, founded Gopámau in Hardoi District. Sopí made his headquarters at Pataunja, now an inconsiderable village, but formerly an extensive city. At present, the site of one of its gates is pointed out 3 miles to the north-west of Misrikh town, in the village of Sultán-nagar, where is an ancient Hindu temple. The Ahbans were succeeded by Panwárs, Káyasths, Bráhmans, Musalmáns, and others, whose descendants are still in possession of their forefathers' acquisitions.

Misrikh.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision in Sítápur District, Oudh; situated between 27° 12′ and 27° 48′ 30″ N. lat., and between 80° 21′ and 80° 52′ E. long. Bounded on the north by Muhamdi *tahsíl* in Kheri District; on the east by Sítápur and Bári *tahsíls;* and on the south and west by Sandíla and Hardoi *tahsíls* in Hardoi District. The *tahsíl* comprises the 7 *parganás* of Misrikh, Chandra, Maholi, Machhrehta, Kurauna, Aurangábád, and Gundlámau. Area, 613 square miles, of which 385 are under cultivation; pop. (1869), 201,367, viz. 188,878 Hindus and 12,489 Muhammadans. Average density of population, 328 per square mile; number of villages or townships, 657.

Misrikh.—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh, and headquarters of Misrikh *tahsíl* and *parganá;* situated 13 miles south of Sítápur town, on the Hardoi and Sítápur road. Lat. 27° 25′ 50″ N., long. 80° 34′ 20″ E. One of the most ancient towns in Oudh, and numerous legends connect its foundation with the mythological Rájá Dadhích. The name is said to be derived from the Sanskrit *misrita*, meaning 'mixed'; because the waters of all the holy places in India are supposed to have been brought together and mixed in the tank mentioned below. The legend is thus given by Colonel Sleeman:—'Misrikh is celebrated as the residence of a very holy sage named Dadhích. In a great battle between the *deotas* and the giants, the *deotas* were defeated. They went to implore the aid of the god Brahma upon his snowy mountain-top. He told them to go to Misrikh, and arm themselves with the bones of the old sage Dadhích. They found the sage alive, and in excellent health; but they thought it their duty to explain to him their orders. He told them that he should be proud to have his bones used as arms in so holy a cause; but he had un-

fortunately vowed to bathe at all the sacred shrines in India before he died, and must perform his vow. Grievously perplexed, the *deotas* all went and submitted their case to their leader, the god Indra. Indra consulted his chaplain, Brispati, who told him that there was really no difficulty whatever in the case; that the angels of all the holy shrines in India had been established at and around Nimsár by Brahma himself, and the *deotas* had only to take water from all the sacred places over which they presided, and pour it over the old sage to get both him and themselves out of the dilemma. They did so, and the old sage, expressing himself satisfied, gave up his life. In what mode it was taken, no one can tell. The *deotas* armed themselves with his bones, attacked the giants forthwith, and gained an easy and complete victory.'

The town itself is a very poor one, with a population (1869) of 2113, viz. 1887 Hindus (chiefly Bráhmans) and 226 Musalmáns. The tank above mentioned is apparently of very ancient construction, local tradition asserting that the sacred pool was first enclosed with a masonry facing by Vikramáditya nineteen centuries ago. In more modern times, 125 years ago, a Marhattá princess repaired the damages which time had occasioned in the *gháts* or stairs; and it is now a fine specimen of a Hindu tank. On its bank stands an old temple sacred to Rájá Dadhích above mentioned, who seems to have been not only a secular prince, but also a great spiritual leader or Rishi. A large fair is held near the tank on the occasion of the *Holi* festival, at which a brisk trade is carried on; the annual value of the sales is returned at £3942. Besides the usual Subdivisional court-offices, the town contains a police station, post office, registration office, distillery, and boys' and girls' schools. There is no *sarái* or travellers' rest-house, as the Bráhmans entertain all strangers. Good camping ground outside the town.

Mitauli.—Town in Kheri District, Oudh; situated 2 miles east of the Kathná river on the road from Lakhimpur to Máikalganj, and surrounded by large groves of mango trees and well-cultivated fields. Pop. (1869), 2006, viz. 1859 Hindus and 147 Musalmáns. The village was the residence of Rájá Lon Sinh, whose estates were confiscated for complicity in the rebellion of 1857-58. It is now owned by Rájá Amír Hassan Khán, *tálukdár* of Mahmudábád.

Mithankot.—Municipal town in Derá Ghází Khán District, Punjab; once situated on the high bank of the Indus (a short distance below its confluence with the Panjnad, 12 miles south of Rájanpur, and 85 from Derá Ghází Khán), in lat. 28° 55′ 20″ N., and long. 70° 25′ E. Formerly the seat of an Assistant Commissioner, now stationed at Rájanpur. The station was abandoned in 1863, when the old town was destroyed by an encroachment of the Indus. The new town stands 5 miles from the present bed, but, being so far from the river, has lost all the commercial importance of its predecessor. Handsome shrine, sacred to

Akil Muhammad. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £153, or 10⅞d. per head of population (3347) within municipal limits.

Mithá Tiwána.—Town in Sháhpur District, Punjab; situated on the uplands of the Sind Ságar Doáb, on the road to Derá Ismáil Khán. Lat. 32° 14′ 40″ N., long. 72° 8′ 50″ E.; pop. (1868), 4854. Chiefly noticeable as the headquarters of an important local family, the Maliks of Mithá Tiwána, who long held out against the Síkh power, and proved useful allies to the British during the Múltán rebellion. Being then rewarded for their loyalty, they again deserved well of our Government for their services in the Mutiny of 1857, for which they obtained pensions, with the honorary title of Khán Bahádur.

Mitranwála.—Town in Siálkot District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 4430.

Mitti.—*Táluk* in the Thar and Párkar District, Sind. Pop. (1872), 23,039; gross revenue (1873-74), £1309.

Mitti. — Town in Mutti *táluk,* Thar and Párkar District, Sind; situated in lat. 24° 44′ N., and long. 69° 51′ E., about 60 miles south from Umarkot. Headquarters of a *múkhtiárkár*, with civil and criminal courts, dispensary Government school, post office, etc. Pop. (1872), 2497; municipal revenue (1873-74), £215. Local and transit trade in grain, cotton, cattle, camels, *ghí*, dyes, hides, oil, piece-goods, sugar, tobacco, and wool.

Mí-zan.—Revenue circle in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Now includes Kaw-htaw. Pop. (1876), 1942; land revenue, £208, and capitation tax, £209.

Mo-bhaw. — Revenue circle in Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 240 square miles, of which the greater portion is hilly and forest-clad. Pop. 6672, mainly Karengs; gross revenue (1876), £822.

Mo-bya-myouk (*North Mo-bya*). — Revenue circle in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 4739; gross revenue, £1943.

Mo-bya-toung (*South Mo-bya*).—Revenue circle in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 4816; gross revenue, £1599.

Modemkhalla. — Town in Vizagapatam District, Madras. — *See* MAUDHUNKHALLA.

Mogá. — *Tahsíl* of Firozpur (Ferozepore) District, Punjab, lying between 30° 41′ 45″ and 30° 54′ N. lat., and between 74° 58′ 15″ and 75° 26′ 15″ E. long. Area, 811 square miles; pop. (1868), 183,223. Persons per square mile, 226; number of villages, 208.

Mogá.—Town in Firozpur (Ferozepore) District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl.* Pop. (1868), 4844, chiefly agriculturists. Situated on the Grand Trunk Road, 34 miles from Firozpur. *Sarái*, masonry tank, camping ground, supply depôt, police station.

Mo-gnyo.—Revenue circle in the township of the same name, Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Low-lying, and subject to inundation from the Irawadi. Pop. (1876), 7717; gross revenue, £1781.

Mo-gnyo. — Township in Tharawadi, Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Hilly and forest-clad in the east, level and well cultivated in west and central portions; traversed from north to south by the Myit-ma-kha or Hlaing river. This township includes the 6 revenue circles of Mo-gnyo, Htien-daw, Reng-daik-beng, Khú-nhit-rwa, Myo-dweng, and Ma-toung-da. Pop. (1876), 45,792; gross revenue, £10,595.

Mo-gnyo.—Chief town of the revenue circle, and headquarters of the township of the same name, in Henzada District, British Burma. Lat. 17° 58′ 20″ N., long. 95° 33′ 20″ E.

Mo-goung. — Revenue circle in the Mya-dai township, Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 3840 acres, of which about 1720 are uncultivable. Products—rice, sesamum, cotton, plantains, maize, chillies, and cutch; numerous *toungya* or hill gardens. Pop. (1876-77), 5709; gross revenue, £580.

Mogul Sarái.—Town in Benares District, North-Western Provinces. —*See* MUGHAL SARAI.

Mogultúr.—Town in Narsapur *táluk*, Godávari District, Madras; situated in lat. 16° 24′ N., and long. 81° 43′ E., 14 miles south-east of Narsapur. Pop. (1871), 4899; number of houses, 1561. The town contains the fort of a pensioned *zamíndár*, whose ancestor was here defeated by Sítárám Rái of Vizianágaram in 1763. Mogultúr was formerly a *sadr* station; it is at present noteworthy only for its salt manufacture.

Mohán.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Unao District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Sandíla *tahsíl* of Hardoi District, on the east by Malihábád *tahsíl* of Lucknow, on the south by Purwa, and on the west by Unao and Safipur *tahsíls*. The *tahsíl* comprises the 4 *parganás* of Mohán Aurás, Asíwán, Jhalotar Ajgáin, and Gorinda Parsandan. Area, 437 square miles, of which 238 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 240,640, viz. 223,293 Hindus and 17,347 Musalmáns. The most thickly populated *tahsíl* in the District, the average density being 599 persons per square mile. Number of villages or townships, 480.

Mohán.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; situated in lat. 26° 46′ 55″ N., and long. 80° 43′ E., on the banks of the Sái river, 18 miles from Lucknow city, with which it is connected by a good unmetalled road. A Muhammadan town of considerable importance in the days of native rule, but it has now no trade, and not even a market is held here. Pop. (1869), 4820—namely, 3054 Hindus and 1766 Muhammadans. The town consists of 1117 houses, and contains one or two streets well

paved with brick. Many of the Musalmán inhabitants belong to good families, who, under the native government, found service in Lucknow city or at court, but who now live on the produce of their groves. Mohán has always been celebrated for its Muhammadan physicians, and mimics and actors. In addition to the Lucknow road, the town is intersected by the road from Aurás and Malihábád to Bani bridge on the Lucknow and Cawnpore road, and by others running westwards across the Sái into Unao. A little below the town, the Sái is crossed by a fine massive bridge, built by Mahárájá Newal Rái, the minister of the Nawáb Safdar Jang. Near the bridge is a high mound, which seems to have been the site of an ancient fort, now surmounted by an old tomb of a Muhammadan saint.

Mohán.—River of Oudh, forming for some distance the boundary line between Kheri District and Nepál. It commences as a rivulet flowing from swamps, with a bed much below the surface of the neighbouring country. It receives a number of tributaries on its north bank, the principal being the Kathni and Gandhra. Below Chandan Chauki the Mohán becomes a considerable stream, with a minimum discharge of 140 cubic feet of water per second; average breadth about 90 feet, with a depth in the centre of about 2 feet; the banks are steep, and from 20 to 30 feet above the water. The river falls into the KAURIALA immediately above Rámnagar, in Kheri District. The Mohán is one of the few streams in Oudh in which good *mahsír* fishing is to be had.

Mohán Aurás.—*Parganá* in Unao District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Hardoi and Lucknow Districts; on the east by Lucknow; on the south by Jhalotár Ajgáin *parganá;* and on the west by Asíwán Rasulábád *parganá.* The river Sái runs through the *parganá* from north-west to south-east, passing under the town of MOHAN. On the north side of the river, much of the country is occupied by extensive *usár* or saline plains, completely bare of trees and of all vegetation; but to the south, the *parganá* is cultivated and fertile. Area, 196 square miles, of which 102 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 96,525, viz. 89,574 Hindus and 6951 Muhammadans. The Government land revenue is levied at the rate of 4s. 1½d. per cultivated acre, 3s. per acre of assessed area, and 2s. 1½d. per acre of total area. The *parganá* is well supplied with road communication, and contains 4 towns with a population exceeding 3000.

Mohand.—Pass in Dehrá Dún District, North-Western Provinces, through the Siwálik range, by which the road from Sahāranpur to Dehrá traverses the hills.

Mohánganj.—*Parganá* in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Símrauta and Jagdíspur, on the east by Gaura Jamún, on the south by Rokha Jáis, and on the west by Hardoi *parganá.* Area, 79½ square miles, or 50,895 acres, of which 24,636 acres are cultivated,

5925 available for cultivation, and 20,334 waste; pop. (1869), 47,281, viz. 42,950 Hindus and 4331 Muhammadans; land revenue demand, £5416, being at the rate of 3s. 6½d. per arable acre. Of the 75 villages comprising the *parganá*, 40 are held under *tálukdári*, and 35 under *zamíndári* tenure. The landholding class are the Kanhpuria Kshattriyas, who made some of their earliest settlements in this *parganá*. They hold all the *tálukdári*, and all but 8 of the *zamíndári* villages.

Mohánlálganj.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Lucknow District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Lucknow and Bára Bánki *tahsíls*, on the east by Haidargarh, on the south by Mahárájganj, and on the west by Purwa. Area, 272 square miles, of which 140 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 150,859, of whom 138,045 are Hindus and 12,814 Muhammadans. Average density of population, 555 per square mile; number of villages or townships, 228. This *tahsíl* comprises the 2 *parganás* of Mohánlálganj and Nigohán Sissaindi.

Mohánlálganj.—*Parganá* in Lucknow District, Oudh. Bounded on the north by Bára Bánki District, from which it is separated by the Gumti river; on the east by Rái Bareli District; on the south by Nigohán *parganá*; and on the west by Bijnaur and Lucknow *parganás*. A compact, square-shaped *parganá*, with an area of 200 square miles, of which 103 are cultivated. The large quantity of waste land (31·6 per cent.) is due to extensive saliferous plains, which cross the centre of the *parganá* from east to west. All the principal cereals are grown, as also sugar-cane and poppy, and vegetables in the neighbourhood of villages. The rice crops grown on the margin of the *jhíls* near Nagrám are specially fine. Pop. (1869), 113,659, viz. 102,552 Hindus and 11,107 Muhammadans. Government land revenue demand, £17,974, being at the rate of 5s. 6d. per cultivated acre, 3s. 9d. per acre of assessed area, and 2s. 10½d. per acre of total area. Six towns contain a population of between 2000 and 5000, and one, AMETHI, has over 5000 inhabitants. The *parganá* is unanimously asserted to have been originally held by the aboriginal Bhars; and the country abounds in old Bhar *díhs*, which appear to be the sites of their villages and forts. These are sometimes of great elevation and extent. They are quite deserted, and the only signs of ancient habitations are the broken bricks which lie scattered over the mounds, and sometimes a hut on the summit devoted to some deified hero, who is worshipped under the title of Bír. There are no less than twenty of these Bhar *díhs* in the *parganá*. The Bhars are said to have ruled from Bahráich, and Amethi was one of their outposts. Common tradition asserts that the Hindu monarch of Kanauj in vain tried to wrest the country from them. The Muhammadan invasion of Sayyid Sálár Masáúd (1032 A.D.) failed to make any permanent conquest, and it was not till the end of the 14th century that the Bhars were driven out by the Amethi Rájputs of the Chamár-

Gaur tribe. These in turn were expelled about the close of the 15th century by a family of Shaikhs, who made themselves masters of the whole *parganá*. The village of Sálimpur, in the north of the *parganá*, was founded by this family; and the present *tálukdár* who holds the estate of Sálimpur is descended from it. Of the 170 villages now comprising the *parganá*, 80 are in the hands of Musalmáns, and 90 belong to Hindus. The principal Hindu landed proprietors are Janwár Rájputs.

Mohánlálganj. — Town in Lucknow District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Mohánlálganj *tahsíl* and *parganá*; situated on the Lucknow and Rái Bareli road, 14 miles from Lucknow city, in lat. 26° 40′ 45″ N., and long. 81° 1′ 30″ E. The village itself was formerly called Mau, and was founded by Janwár Rájputs, who held undisputed possession of this and neighbouring villages undisturbed during the rule of the Nawábs. It was eventually conferred on the present *tálukdár*, Rájá Kási Prasád, who, in 1859, built a *ganj* or market, which he named Mohánlálganj after an ancestor. This name has now been given to the *parganá*, which was formerly called Amethi, and to the whole *tahsíl*. The *ganj* is now a thriving centre of traffic, and a large trade is carried on, chiefly in grain and country cotton stuffs. Pop. (1869), 3674, almost entirely Hindus. Inside the *ganj* is a fine *sarái* or travellers' rest-house, and outside are the *tahsíli* buildings, police station, and a military camping ground. Large and imposing Sivaite temple, erected by the *tálukdár*. Two Government schools.

Mohánpur.—Native State within the British Political Agency of Mahi Kánta, in the Province of Guzerat, Bombay. Pop. (1872), 14,011. The principal agricultural products are millet, wheat, maize, and oil-seeds. Talc is found in Orpodra. The Chief is descended from the Ráos of Chandrawati, near Mount Abú. His ancestor, Jaipál, emigrated from Chandrawati to Hárol in Mahi Kánta in 1227; and thence, in the 13th generation, Thákur Prithwi Ráj moved to Ghorwára, having received in *jágír* that and neighbouring Districts, which in the course of time were divided among the different branches of the family. The Chief has enjoyed semi-independent power since the establishment of his family in Mahi Kánta. The present (1876-77) ruler is Thákur Umed Sinh, a Rehwar Rájput. He is a Hindu of the ancient Rájput clan called Pramara, is twenty-four years of age, and manages his State in person. He enjoys an estimated gross yearly revenue of £2700, and pays tribute of £475 to the Gáekwár of Baroda, £225 to the Rájá of Edar, and 15s. to the British Government. The family of the Chief follow the rule of primogeniture in matters of succession. There are 3 schools, with a total number of 105 pupils.

Mohánpur.—Chief town of the State of the same name in Mahi Kánta Political Agency, Bombay.

Mohár.—Mountains in the Punjab.—*See* SHAIKH BUDIN.

Mohárí.—Town in Bhandára District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 19′ N., and long. 79° 42′ E., on the affluent of the Sur river, 10 miles north of Bhandára. Pop. (1872), 6183. Mohárí is reckoned healthy, though the well-water is scanty and brackish. The cotton cloth manufactured in the town commands a good sale, and some trade is done in grain. Large Government school, police office, and District post office.

Mohgáon.—Municipal town in Chhindwára District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 38′ N., and long. 78° 46′ E., on an affluent of the Jám river, 38 miles south of Chhindwára. On either side of the river stands a large Hindu temple, one of which, sacred to Mahádeva, is said to be three centuries old. Pop. (1877), 5325, many of whom are traders. Mohgáon is the only place in Chhindwára where beggars, chiefly Bráhmans, are numerous.

Mohi.—Town in Unao District, Oudh; 15 miles south-east from Purwa town. Lat. 26° 26′ N., long. 81° 2′ E.; pop. (1869), 4995, viz. 4802 Hindus and 193 Musalmáns, residing in 946 mud houses. Founded about 500 years ago by a Kshattriya, Mán Sinh. Two temples; village school.

Mohim.—Town in Rohtak District, Punjab; (2) town in Tanna District, Bombay.—*See* MAHIM.

Mohnár.—Town in Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; situated 20 miles south-east of Hájípur, a short distance north of the Ganges, on the Hájípur and Mahí-ud-dín-nagar road. Pop. (1872), 982. *Tháná* or police station, and a distillery under the jurisdiction of the Subdivisional officer at Hájípur. Large *bázár*, with trade in linseed, food grains, and saltpetre. Two *pathsálás* or indigenous schools.

Mohne.—Fortress in Bashahr State, Punjab; situated, according to Thornton, on the southern slope of the Raldang Mountain in Kunáwár, in lat. 31° 26′ N., and long. 78° 19′ E. Thornton states that it contains a famous Hindu temple, dedicated to Badrináth, and crowned by a ball of pure gold said to weigh 15 or 20 lbs.

Mohpá (*Muhpa*).—Town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 19′ N., and long. 78° 52′ E., on the river Chandrabhágá, 20 miles from Nágpur. Pop. (1872), 5572, chiefly agricultural. The Málí caste are numerous, and by their industry most of the rich land is cultivated and irrigated like a garden. Mohpá is the chief place in a small but valuable estate belonging to the Nawáb Hasan Alí Khán. The new road through Kalmeswar to Sáwargáon will pass through the town. A good school-house has lately been built.

Mojgarh.—Town in Baháwalpur State, Punjab; situated in lat. 29° 1′ N., and long. 72° 11′ E., on the route from Baháwalpur to Jodhpur, 37 miles south-east of the former town. Stands in the midst of a desert

upland plain, surrounded by low sandy eminences, at too great a distance (according to Thornton) to permit of light guns commanding the place. Brick-built walls, 50 feet in height and 2½ feet in thickness; numerous bastions; outworks protect the entrance. 'A mosque conspicuously surmounts the gateway, and a little to the north is a Muhammadan tomb, with a cupola profusely ornamented with coloured glazed tiles.' Large tank without the walls. Several good wells within.

Mokalmuru.—Village in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore. Lat. 14° 43′ 50″ N., long. 76° 46′ 40″ E.; pop. (1871), 1784. An ancient place, once the residence of a line of *paligárs.* Above the town is a large reservoir, near which a fine echo is obtained from the *kúguva bande* or 'shouting-stone.' Until 1875, the headquarters of a *táluk* of the same name.

Mokameh.—Town in Patná District, Bengal, and a station on the East India Railway.—*See* MUKAMA.

Moka Paginu Muwadu.—One of the petty States of Rewá Kánta, Bombay. Area, five-eighths of a square mile. Two chiefs. Estimated revenue (1875), £25, half of which is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Mokhad.—Municipal town in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab; situated on the bank of the Indus, at the point where the river begins to be navigable for large vessels. Pop. (1868), 4252. Formerly the terminus of the Indus Steam Flotilla, now superseded by the railway, whose ships plied between this port and Kotri. One vessel still remains at the personal service of the Lieutenant-Governor. Considerable trade with Afghánistán, principally in English piece-goods and indigo, in the hands of the Paraicha tribe. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £258, or 1s. 2½d. per head of population (4252) within municipal limits.

Mokundurra.—Village and pass in Kotah State, Rájputána.—*See* MUKANDWARA.

Molúr.—Village in Bangalore District, Mysore.—*See* MALUR.

Monassa.—Town in Indore State, Central India.—*See* MANASA.

Mong (or *Mung*).—Village in Gujrát District, Punjáb; identified by General Cunningham with the city of Nikæa, built by Alexander the Great upon the site of his battle with Porus, after the passage of the Jhelum (Jhílam). Stands in lat. 32° 39′ N., and long. 73° 33′ E., on an old ruined mound, the modern houses being built of large ancient bricks. Greek and Indo-Scythian coins occur profusely among the ruins, many of them bearing the monogram NIK. Tradition assigns the origin of the mound to Rájá Moga, whom General Cunningham identifies with the Moa or Manas of the coins.

Monghyr (*Mungír*).—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 24° 22′ and 25° 49′ N. lat., and between

85° 40′ and 86° 55′ E. Area, 3922 square miles; population, according to the Census of 1872, 1,812,986. Monghyr is bounded on the north by the Districts of Bhágalpur and Tirhut; on the east by Bhágalpur; on the south by the Santál Parganás and the District of Hazáribágh; and on the west by the Districts of Gayá, Patná, and Tirhut.

Physical Aspects.—The river Ganges divides the District into two portions. The northern portion is intersected by the Buri Gandak and Tíljuga, two important tributaries of the Ganges, and is always liable to inundation during the rainy season. This is a rich, flat, wheat and rice growing country, and supports a large population. A considerable area, immediately bordering the banks of the great rivers, and always liable to inundation, is devoted to permanent pasture. This tract, which is estimated to cover about 200 square miles, is covered by the rank *pod* grass and the graceful pampas, with a scanty undergrowth of the more succulent kinds, such as *dúb*. Immense quantities of buffaloes are sent every hot season to graze on these marshy prairies; and the *ghí*, or clarified butter, made from their milk forms an important article of export to Calcutta. The charge levied by the landowners is about 8 *ánnás* (1s.) per head for the season from June to January. To the south of the Ganges, the country is dry, much less fertile, and broken up by fragmentary ridges. The soil consists of quartz, mixed in varying proportions with mica. Ranges of hills intersect this part of the District, and in the extreme south form conical peaks, densely covered with jungle, but of no great height. Irrigation is necessary throughout the section lying on the south of the Ganges, in order to secure the harvest, and is generally resorted to by the cultivators after their simple and inexpensive methods.

The Modern History of Monghyr has been given in the account of BHAGALPUR DISTRICT, within which it was included in the earlier days of English administration. The local records do not give the date of the establishment of the District as a subsidiary executive centre, but this change appears to have been effected about the beginning of this century. In 1832, Monghyr was made an independent Deputy Collectorship and Joint Magistracy, and the title of Magistrate and Collector was subsequently given to the District officer. The magisterial and revenue jurisdiction of Monghyr is therefore now quite separate from Bhágalpur; but the civil and the higher criminal or assize jurisdiction is still vested in the judge of Bhágalpur, who, once in two months, visits Monghyr to try serious cases and inspect the civil courts and jail.

The Earlier History of Monghyr has a special interest. It was one of the principal centres of the Muhammadan administration. The fort, of which an account is given in the article on the town of MONGHYR, is of great natural strength, and its value as a military

position was recognised by Musalmán governors from the time of Muhammad Bakhtiyar Khiljí, in 1195 A.D., up to that of Mír Kásim in his conflicts with the English in the last century. According to the *Aín-í-Akbarí*, or Domesday Book of India, compiled by Todar Mall, the *sarkár* or Province of Monghyr was divided into 31 *mahráls* or fiscal divisions, paying an aggregate revenue of 109,625,981 *dáms*, 40 *dáms* being equal to 1 Akbarsháhí rupee. In addition, the *sarkár* was required to furnish 2150 horsemen and 50,000 foot. The *parganá* of Monghyr itself was assessed at 808,907½ *dáms*. The figures, however, were probably nominal, as the greater part of the country, especially to the south of the Ganges, was then in the hands of semi-independent chieftains. The most powerful of these local chiefs was the Rájá of Kharakpur, who alone ruled over 24 *parganás*. The founder of this family was a Rájput soldier of fortune, who overthrew the original Kshetauri proprietors by an act of gross treachery. His son and successor strengthened his position by turning Muhammadan in the reign of the Mughal Emperor Jahángír, and taking a wife from the imperial *zanána*. The downfall of the line dates from the British occupation, when the ancestral estates were rapidly sold one after another for arrears of revenue, a large portion being bought by the Rájá of Darbhangah, who now allows a small pension to the representative of the original chief. Another ancient family is that of the Rájás of Pharkiyá, who trace their descent from a Rájput who first brought the lawless tribe of Dosádhs under subjection in the reign of the Emperor Humáyun, and received a grant of the *zamíndárí* in 1494. The property still continues in his family, but has been much broken up by subdivision and alienation. At the present day, the principal landowner in the District is the Mahárájá Sir Jái Mangal Sinh, K.C.S.I., of Gidhaur, noted for his loyalty to the English, and the twenty-second in descent from the first occupant of the estate.

Population.—The first complete Census of the whole District was effected in 1872. The results disclosed a total population of 1,812,986 persons, dwelling in 2457 villages and in 328,174 houses; the average pressure of population on the soil was 463 persons to the square mile. The most densely populated parts of the District are the immediate neighbourhood of the headquarters station and the tracts of country to the north of the Ganges. In these parts, the population varies from 471 to 831 per square mile. South of the Ganges, the police division of Kharakpur, with 388 to the square mile, begins to show a marked diminution, which reaches its lowest point in the jungle and waste lands in the extreme south of the District, where the density is only 166 to the square mile. The average number of persons to a village is 738—to a house, 5·5. Classified according to sex and age, there are, under 12 years of age—males, 343,091;

females, 301,134: above 12 years of age—males, 553,983; females, 614,778. The great bulk of the people are Hindus, who number 1,613,546, or 89 per cent. of the total population. Muhammadans number only 182,269, and there are a few Buddhists and Christians. The lower classes of Hindus, who are unquestionably of aboriginal descent, are very numerous. The number of purely aboriginal and hill tribes is returned at 21,672; the number of semi-Hinduized aborigines at 327,017. They inhabit the jungles in the southern parts of the District. Among high castes, the Bábhans call for special notice. In the Begu Sarái Subdivision, to the north of the Ganges, they are twice as numerous as the whole Musalmán community, and form a fifth part of the entire population. The Bábhans are neither Rájputs nor Bráhmans, but resemble both. It is stated that they were originally a low Aryan race, who were brought into close contact with the Rájputs, probably in some of their struggles for supremacy; and who, not being allowed to intermarry, or form one people with them, have acquired a respectability of their own by pretending that they are Bráhmans. This rank, however, is not conceded to them by other castes. The total number of Bábhans in Monghyr District is 160,973. Among lower castes, the Goálas only need be mentioned. They are cattle-breeders, herdsmen, and dairymen; 197,569 in number. They form a large class to the north of the Ganges. The population of the District is almost entirely rural. The Census Report returns 7 towns of 5000 souls and upwards, viz.—MONGHYR, 59,698; SHAIKPURA, 11,536; JAMALPUR, 10,453; BARHIYA, 10,405; SURAJGARHA, 7935; BARBIGHA, 6362; and JAMUI, 5197. MONGHYR is the chief town and administrative headquarters of the District. Jamálpur is remarkable as containing the iron workshops of the East Indian Railway Company. These two towns are the only municipalities in the District.

Agriculture.—The cultivation of rice is the principal occupation of the people. Wheat and Indian corn are the two next important crops. The area under cultivation with wheat is rapidly increasing. In the southern part of the District, where the land lies high, irrigation is general. The most important works for the purpose of irrigation are those on the Kharakpur estate of the Mahárájá of Darbhangah. This property has for some years been under the management of the Court of Wards; and one of the results of this management is the completion of a work which will irrigate, when necessary, an area of more than 70,000 acres. The cultivated area is largely held under the tenure known as *bháoli-jot*, by which the tenant pays rent, in money or kind, according to the out-turn of his crops in each year. It is popular with the tenantry, and of ancient standing. Nearly all the cultivators are tenants-at-will; and where the rents are fixed, the rates are higher than those usual in Bengal for similar classes of land. According to the

Revenue Survey, which was concluded in September 1847, the total cultivated area in the District was given at 1,311,768 acres, the uncultivable area at 284,365 acres, and the uncultivated at 539,178 acres. More recent figures cannot be relied on; but it is known that cultivation has largely extended during the past thirty years. A holding of over 25 acres of land would now be considered an unusually large one, though holdings of 33 to 100 acres are to be found; less than 4 acres would be looked upon as very small. A farm of 12 acres can comfortably support a husbandman. The people are poor, and the wages of labour and the price of food, although they have increased of late years, are still low. The daily wage for which coolies and road-labourers can be engaged is from 2¼d. to 3d. a day. The price of the common qualities of rice is ordinarily about 5s. a cwt., and of wheat about 9s. a cwt. It is reported that the sale of rice at 7s. a cwt. in January and February—at a time of year when the harvest has just been reaped and prices are lowest—would be a warning of the approach of famine.

Natural Calamities in Monghyr District are mainly due to drought, and in a less degree to flood. But any noteworthy scarcity has been of rare occurrence; and it is said that the only droughts of such severity as to deserve special notice have occurred of late years—that is to say, in 1865 and 1873—resulting in the famines of 1866 and 1874. The famine of 1865-66 was most severely felt in the south-west of the District, where rice forms the staple crop. Prices first rose to excessive rates in October 1865, when gratuitous distribution of food was begun in the town of Monghyr. The reaping of the scanty winter harvest diverted the indigent population for a season; but in May 1866, it was found necessary to undertake relief operations on a large scale. The month of greatest suffering was September, when rice rose to 16s. per cwt. The highest daily number of persons receiving relief was 3450. As usually happens, cholera and other diseases greatly increased the mortality. According to police returns, the total number of deaths from starvation in the year 1866 was 642; and from diseases engendered by want, 605. The threatened famine of 1873-74 may be said to have been altogether averted by the prompt intervention of Government, and by the facilities afforded by the railway for importation: on this occasion, it was again the rice crop which failed, especially in the south-west and north-east of the District; while the spring crops turned out well. The total amount of grain imported through the agency of Government was 8125 tons; and the total expenditure on all heads was £233,000, of which the larger portion was applied in advances, subsequently recovered.

Manufactures and Trade, etc.—The name of Monghyr is famous throughout India as that of the Indian Birmingham, though its manu-

factures of iron are now on the decline. Fire-arms, swords, and iron articles of every kind are still produced in abundance, but noted for cheapness rather than quality. A serviceable double-barrel gun can be obtained at Monghyr for £2, and a large double-barrel pistol for £1. The art of inlaying sword-hilts and other articles with gold or silver affords employment to about 20 families. The entire process of iron manufacture, from smelting the ore to hammering out delicate ornaments, is carried on in the District. The ore is principally brought from the hills of Kharakpur. At the present day, the manufacture of indigo, by European capital and under European supervision, is by far the most important industry in Monghyr. The total area under indigo is estimated at about 10,000 acres, with an average out-turn of 2900 cwts. of dye. There are also extensive slate quarries at Abháipur under European management. Among minor industries may be mentioned weaving and dyeing, cabinet-making and boot-making at the town of Monghyr, soap-boiling, making water-bottles of clay, and carving *lingas* or emblems of Siva out of chlorite.

The District, being favourably situated for trade both by river and rail, exports large quantities of agricultural produce to Calcutta. When the Ganges is in flood, carriage by boat is preferred; but the native merchants are always ready to use the railway when immediate despatch becomes of importance. Trade is chiefly in the hands of immigrants from Lower Bengal of the Telí and Sonárbaniya castes; but Musalmáns monopolize the export of hides, and the traffic up-stream is conducted by Márwárís from the North-west. The registration returns for 1876-77 show a total of exports valued at £430,000, against imports valued at £314,000. Nearly two-thirds of the exports were sent by river, whereas more than half the imports came by rail. The principal river ports are Monghyr town, Khargaria, and Surájgarha; the railway stations with most traffic are Monghyr, Barhiya, Lakhi-sarái (Luckeeserai), Kajra, Jamui, and Jamálpur. Among the exports, the following were the chief items in 1876-77:—Oil-seeds, £132,000; wheat, £75,000; gram and pulse, £70,000; indigo, £29,000; rice, £28,000; *ghí*, £26,000; hides, £22,000, and tobacco, £11,000. The imports were mainly confined to European piece-goods, £144,000; salt (also from Europe), £111,000; and sugar from the North-west, £21,000.

Administration.—It is not possible to institute any comparison between the present revenue and expenditure of Monghyr District and the figures of earlier times. The land, excise, and other revenue was for the most part paid into the Bhágalpur treasury, and the accounts were not separately kept. The net revenue realized in the District in 1870-71 was £131,228, and the net expenditure was £38,616. These figures exclude mere matters of account and purely local receipts, and also imperial charges which are not expenditure on the District

administration. In 1874-75, there were 4053 estates of all kinds on the revenue roll, and the total land revenue of the District was returned at £94,034. The means of affording protection to person and property has been steadily increased. In 1832, there was 1 magisterial, 1 civil and revenue court, and 1 covenanted officer stationed in Monghyr District; in 1869, there were 6 magisterial and 10 civil and revenue courts, and 4 covenanted officers. The District police force, according to the returns of 1872, consisted of 1 superior European officer, 60 subordinate native officers, and 334 constables; and the total annual cost of maintenance was £7200. There was also a municipal police of 5 officers and 117 constables, at a cost of £1031. The rural or village police numbered 3753 men, maintained at an estimated cost in money and lands of £7965. The police, therefore, of all sorts consisted of a total of 4270 officers and men, equal to an average of 1 man to every 424 of the population. The aggregate cost was £16,196, or about equal to a charge of 2d. per head of the population. In the jail at Monghyr, the average daily number of prisoners in 1873 was 373·5, of whom 288 were labouring convicts. The sanitary condition of this jail was formerly very bad, but it has improved of late years. In 1873, the death-rate was only 2·94 per cent., as compared with 4·85, the average rate for all the jails of the Province. The progress of education has not been so rapid in Monghyr as in some other Districts. The number of Government and aided schools was 8 in 1856-57, and 15 in 1870-71, while the increase in the number of pupils was from 439 to 627. But under the operation of Sir George Campbell's educational reforms, the number of Government and aided schools increased in 1874-75 to 229, and the number of pupils to 6675. There is one higher-class English school in the District, situated at the headquarters station. Two towns only in Monghyr have been placed under municipal government, the town of Monghyr itself and Jamálpur. In Monghyr, the gross municipal income amounted in 1876-77 to £2747, and the rate of municipal taxation was 10¾d. per head of the population. In Jamálpur, the income amounted in that year to £1634, and the rate of taxation was 2s. 10½d. per head of the population. This exceptionally heavy rate in Jamálpur is occasioned by the inclusion of the house tax, amounting to £924, levied on the premises of the East Indian Railway Company.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Monghyr is dry, and considered healthy. The temperature is high in the hot weather, reaching 107° F. in the month of May; but the cold weather is cool and pleasant, and generally agreeable to Europeans, who frequently resort to Monghyr for change and rest after labour in the Bengal plains. The rains are not heavy, the annual average for a series of seventeen years, from 1858 to 1874, being 46½ inches. Malarial fever is, under the favour-

able conditions of climate, comparatively uncommon; cholera, however, is epidemic. Elephantiasis Græcorum, a form of leprosy, is very common both in its tubercular and in its anæsthetic or atrophic type. A special account of the pathology of this disease, written by the Civil Surgeon of the District in 1863, in answer to a series of interrogatories from the London College of Physicians, will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. xv. pp. 192 *sqq.*

Monghyr.—*Sadr* or headquarters Subdivision of Monghyr District, Bengal, lying between 24° 57′ and 25° 49′ N. lat., and between 85° 57′ 30″ and 86° 55′ E. long. Area, 1560 square miles; townships, 984; houses, 133,768. Pop. (1872), 750,984, of whom 665,253, or 88·6 per cent., were Hindus; 80,850, or 10·8 per cent., Muhammadans; 33 Buddhists; 980, or 0·1 per cent., Christians; and 3868, or 0·5 per cent., belonging to other denominations not classified. Proportion of males in total population, 49·8 per cent.; average density of population, 481 per square mile; number of villages per square mile, 0·63; persons per village, 763; houses per square mile, 86; inmates per house, 5·6. This Subdivision comprises the four *thánás* (police circles) of Monghyr, Suráјgarha, Kharakpur, and Gogri. In 1870-71, it contained 8 magisterial and 10 civil and revenue courts; the regular police consisted of 385 men, the rural force of 1468, the Monghyr town police of 85, and the Jamálpur force of 42 men; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £4627.

Monghyr (*Mungír*).—Chief town and administrative headquarters of Monghyr District, Bengal; situated on the south bank of the Ganges, in lat. 25° 22′ 32″ N., and long. 86° 30′ 21″ E. Population in 1872, 59,698 persons; area, 4480 acres.

General Description.—Monghyr has been a place of considerable importance since the earliest days of the English occupation of Bengal, although it did not become a civil station until 1812. The old Musalmán fort was first occupied by a regiment belonging to the East India Company. At present, it is a purely civil station, and in some respects one of the most picturesque in Bengal. It consists of two distinct portions—the fort, within which are situated the public offices and residences of the Europeans; and the native town, stretching away from the former eastward and southward along the river. The fort is formed by a great rampart of earth enclosing a rocky eminence, which projects some distance into the Ganges, and is faced with stone. It was probably at one time a strong fortification. Towards the north, the river comes up to the walls, forming a natural defence; to the landward, a deep, wide ditch surrounds and protects the fort. On entering from the railway station by the Lál Darwáza or Red Gate, the principal entrance, Monghyr presents a very pretty appearance. The main road runs southwards between two large tanks,

behind each of which rise low hills. On one of these stands the Karna Chaura house, the property of the Mahárájá of Vizianágaram; and on the other, a fine building known as the palace of the Sháh Sáhib, and now the residence of the Collector, behind which is the residence of Shujá Sháh, son of Akbar, which has been converted into a jail. Between the hills lie the Government gardens, with trim hedges and neat wire-fencing. Beyond the gardens, and usually on low eminences, are the houses of the other Europeans.

Origin of the Name.—The origin of the name of Monghyr is very uncertain. It is said that the place was formerly called Madgalpurí or Madgalasrám, from its having been the abode of Madgal Múní, a hermit saint, who lived in the early ages of the world. Another explanation, founded on the authority of the *Haribansa*, derives the name from a certain Madgal Rájá, one of the sons of Viswalmitra, son of a Gadhi Rájá, who received this part of his father's dominions. Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton states that on an inscription, seven or eight centuries old, found at Monghyr, and perhaps more ancient than the *Haribansa*, the name is written Madgagírá, or the hill of Madga, and not Madgalpurí, or the abode of Madgal. The existence, therefore, both of the saint and prince, is very doubtful. Probably the name has a much more humble origin, as *madga* is the Sanskrit word for a kind of pulse, the Phaseolus mungo of Linnæus.

History.—A copper plate found on the site of the fort in 1780 contains an inscription in antique characters of uncertain date, recording that the armies of Rájá Deb Pál of Patná here crossed the Ganges by a bridge of boats. The Pál dynasty is plausibly assigned on other evidence to the 11th century A.D. Shortly afterwards, in 1195, Monghyr appears to have been taken by Muhammad Bakhtyar Khiljí, the first Musalmán conqueror of Bengal. Henceforth, it is often mentioned by the Muhammadan chroniclers as a place of military importance, and was often chosen as the seat of the local Government. Prince Dányál, son of Husáin Sháh, the Afghán king of Gaur, repaired the fortifications in 1497, and built a vault over the tomb of Sháh Náfah, the Muhammadan patron of the town, as is shown by an inscription still extant. In 1590, when the Mughal Emperor Akbar succeeded in establishing his supremacy over the Afghán chiefs of Bengal, Monghyr was long the headquarters of the imperialist general Todar Mall, who again restored the walls. Monghyr also figures prominently during the rebellion of Sultán Shujá against his brother, Aurangzeb. In more recent times, when the Nawáb Mír Kásim was already contemplating the assertion of his independence against the English, he selected Monghyr as his residence and the centre of his military preparations. The fame of Monghyr armourers is said to date from the arsenal which he established. A spot by the side of the fort is

still pointed out as the scene of the memorable outrage, when the two Seths, the great Hindu bankers, were thrown into the Ganges, on the charge of favouring the English cause. After his defeat at Udhanálá in 1763, Mír Kásim retreated up the river towards Patná, and the fort of Monghyr no longer figures in history.

Population.—In 1811, Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton estimated the population of Monghyr to be 30,000. In 1869, the experimental Census showed 53,981 persons, living in 13,179 houses; average number of persons per house, 4·09. The regular Census of 1872 disclosed a still larger population, the figures then ascertained being as follows:—Total population, 59,698, of whom 28,708 were males and 30,990 females; number of houses, 10,265. The number of Hindus was 44,900; Muhammadans, 14,346; Buddhists, 33; Christians, 305; and 'others,' 24.

Municipal Statistics.—In 1876-77, the municipal income was £2747; expenditure, £3118; incidence of taxation, 10¼d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Monierkhál (or *Manierkhál*).—Outpost in Cáchár District, Assam; on the Sonái river, near the frontier of Manipur and the Lushái Hills. In January 1871, the small garrison of Sepoys was fiercely attacked by a body of Lusháis for two days and two nights, but successfully held out until relieved. This attack was an incident in the raid which led to the retributive Lushái expedition in the following cold season. Monierkhál is now connected by a good road with Nagdirgrám, and so with Silchár town. In the neighbourhood are several flourishing tea-gardens. In 1875, the outpost was garrisoned by a detachment of the 3rd Bengal Native Infantry, with headquarters at Silchár.

Montgomery.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 29° 58′ and 31° 33′ N. lat., and between 72° 29′ 30″ and 74° 10′ 30″ E. long. Area, 5573 square miles; population in 1872, 359,437 persons. Montgomery forms the north-eastern District of the Múltán Division. It is bounded on the north-east by Lahore; on the south-east by the river Sutlej (Satlaj); on the south-west by Múltán; and on the north-west by Jhang. The administrative headquarters are at the town of MONTGOMERY, upon the Lahore and Multán Railway.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Montgomery, formerly known as Gugaira, occupies a wide extent of the Bári Doáb, or wedge of land between the Sutlej (Satlaj) and the Rávi, besides stretching across the latter river into the adjoining Rechna Doáb. In the former tract, a fringe of cultivated lowland skirts the bank of either great boundary stream; but the whole interior upland, beyond the fertilizing influence of their waters, consists of a desert plateau, partially overgrown with brushwood and coarse grass, which are interrupted at places

by an impenetrable jungle, impassable alike for man or horse. On the farther side of the Rávi, again, the country at once assumes the same desert aspect, which continues across the whole Rechna Doáb, till the land dips once more into the valley of the Chenáb, in the neighbouring District of JHANG. This portion of Montgomery exactly resembles the Jhang desert or *bár*, being quite devoid of water in the dry season, but covered after the rains with scanty vegetation, which affords pasture to large herds of cattle, under the charge of a few scattered nomad families. Close to the Rávi, a few acres have been brought into cultivation by means of inundation channels cut from the river. In the Bári Doáb, an elevated ridge or backbone, known as the Dhaya, runs down the centre of the watershed, consisting of a saline soil, whose wells yield brackish water. The tract sloping from this upland to the river valleys is intersected by numerous ravines, which probably once flowed into the Rávi and the Sutlej (Satlaj). The former river has an extremely tortuous course through its alluvial flats, and though broad and impetuous during the rains, narrows down to a shallow stream in the dry season. The only other important water-course is that of the Degh, a small rivulet, whose use for artificial irrigation alone renders it noteworthy; but the demands made upon its scanty supply often cause it to run dry before reaching this District. The old beds of the Rávi and Beas (Biás), which formerly united their waters much lower down than at present, may be traced through a great part of the Doáb which they once bounded, and numerous pools (*jhíls*) still mark their original channels. The Sutlej is navigable by boats of heavy burden throughout the year, and the Rávi affords a useful water-way for country craft laden with sugar and other agricultural produce.

History.—From time immemorial, the Rechna Doáb has formed the home of a wild race of pastoral Játs, who have constantly maintained a sturdy independence against the successive rulers of Northern India. At the date of Alexander's invasion, a tribe whom his historians name Kathæans, held the northern portion of the modern District; while the Malli, with their capital at Múltán, had possession of the southern tract. The Kathæans probably had their metropolis at Sangala in JHANG DISTRICT; and the chief towns of the Malli within the limits of Montgomery appear to have occupied the sites of KOT KAMALIA and HARAPPA, where mounds of large antique bricks and other ruins mark the former existence of a considerable population. Many other remains of ancient cities or villages lie scattered along the river banks or dot the now barren stretches of the central waste, clearly showing that at some earlier period, under different conditions of water supply, Montgomery consisted of a cultivated plain, as thickly covered with towns as the most flourishing Districts of the northern Punjab at the present day.

Pák Pattan, Dipálpur, Akbár, and Sátgarha also contain many interesting relics of antiquity, whose history, however, has eluded the learned research of General Cunningham. The pastoral tribes of this barren expanse do not appear to have paid more than a nominal allegiance to the Musalmán rulers. The greater part, if not the whole, of the District was probably comprised in the Dipálpur *sarkár* of the Múltán *subah;* but little more than this solitary fact has come down to us from the annalists of the Mughal dynasty. When the Síkh reaction took place in the north-eastern Punjab, the chiefs of the Bhangi *misl* or confederacy overran the Bári Doáb, but did not succeed in permanently establishing their supremacy over the half-nomad Játs of Montgomery. Under Ranjít Sinh, however, the Síkh kingdom was extended to MULTAN; and Montgomery, like the rest of the Múltán Province, fell successively under the administration of Sáwan Mall and his son Múlráj. But this wild upland received little attention from the Síkh governors, being too poor to yield a regular revenue, and too wide to harry for arrears in any of their periodical raids. The country accordingly remained for the most part in a chronic state of rebellion; and although Sáwan Mall did much to tranquillize it by light assessments and stipends to the chieftains, yet these measures only extended to the lowland tracts along the river banks, and it was not until after the introduction of our settled rule that the tribes of the interior first felt the effects of regular government. British influence extended to the District for the first time in 1847, when an officer, under orders from the Resident at Lahore, effected a summary settlement of the land revenue. Direct British rule was introduced on the annexation of the Punjab in 1849. The District at once assumed its existing dimensions, but bore the name of Gugaira from its original headquarters town, upon the old military road from Lahore to Múltán, about 30 miles north of the present civil station. On the opening of the railway, however, in 1864, the headquarters were shifted to the village of Sahiwál, which received its present name in compliment to the Lieutenant-Governor of the Punjab, Sir R. Montgomery. Meanwhile, during the Mutiny of 1857, the District had formed the scene of the only rising which took place north of the Sutlej. Before the end of May, emissaries from Delhi appear to have crossed the river from Sírsa and Hissár, where open mutiny was already rife, and to have met with a ready reception from the Kharrals and other wild Ját clans. The District authorities, however, kept down the threatened rebellion till the 26th of August, when the prisoners in jail made a desperate attempt to break loose. At the same time, Ahmad Khán, a famous Kharral leader, who had been detained at Gugaira, broke his arrest, and though apprehended, was released on security, together with several other suspected chieftains. On the 16th of

September they fled to their homes, and the whole country rose in open rebellion. Kot Kamália was completely sacked, and Major Chamberlain, moving up with a small force from Múltán, was besieged for some days at Chíchawatni on the Rávi. The situation at the civil station remained critical till Colonel Paton arrived with substantial reinforcements from Lahore. An attack which took place immediately after their arrival was repulsed. Several minor actions followed in the open field, until finally the rebels, driven from the plain into the wildest jungles of the interior, were at length utterly defeated and dispersed. Our troops then inflicted severe punishment on the insurgent clans, destroying their villages, and seizing large numbers of cattle for sale.

Population. — The Census of 1855 returned the total number of inhabitants in Montgomery District at 308,020. That of 1868 showed an increase of 51,417 persons, or 16·69 per cent., the area meanwhile remaining unchanged. The last-named enumeration extended over a surface of 5573 square miles, and disclosed a total population of 359,437 persons, distributed among 2009 villages or townships, and inhabiting 72,276 houses. From these data, the following averages may be calculated: — Persons per square mile, 645; villages per square mile, 0·36; houses per square mile, 12·96; persons per village, 178; persons per house, 4·97. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 200,016; females, 159,421; proportion of males, 55·65 per cent. (an unusually high ratio). Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 72,031; females, 61,345; total children, 133,376, or 37·10 per cent. of the population. As regards religious distinctions, the Hindus numbered 69,805 persons, or 19·42 per cent.; Muhammadans, 277,291, or 77·15 per cent.; Síkhs, 12,286, or 3·42 per cent.; and 'others,' 55, or 0·01 per cent. The ethnical division yields the following results:—Hindus and Síkhs—Bráhmans, 2400; Kshattriyas, 3607; Aroras, 48,035; Rájputs, Játs, Gujars, etc., 1312: Muhammadans—Sayyids, 3678; Mughals, 497; Patháns, 1002; Baluchis, 8011; Rájputs, 18,035; Játs, 29,323; and Gujars, 276. This classification, however, seems inaccurate, as under the head of Játs ought to be placed most, if not all, of the pastoral clans inhabiting the District. They bear collectively the name of the 'Great Rávi' tribes, in contradistinction from the purely agricultural classes, who are contemptuously nicknamed the 'Little Rávi.' Their principal subdivisions include the Khattias, who have been identified with the Kathæans of Arrian; the Kharrals, the most turbulent and courageous of all the clans; together with the Fatehána, Murdána, Vainiwál, Baghela, Wattu, and Johia. The 'Great Rávi Játs' possess a fine physique, and have handsome features; they lay claim to a Rájput origin, and look down upon all who handle the plough. In former

days, they exercised practical sovereignty over the agricultural tribes of the lowlands. The District contains only 2 towns with a population of more than 5000—namely, PAK PATTAN (6086) and KAMALIA (5695). The headquarters station of MONTGOMERY still remains a mere village, with 2416 inhabitants in 1868.

Agriculture.—Out of a total assessed area of 3,569,746 acres, only 538,240 acres are under cultivation. Wheat forms the staple crop of the District, and includes from 38 to 80 per cent. of the total area under tillage. Rice grows abundantly upon the banks of the Degh and the Khánwa Canal, and bears a good reputation in the Lahore market, whither it finds its way in large quantities. Gram flourishes on the alluvial lowlands, and forms the principal crop along the Degh; but it will only grow on inundated land, artificial irrigation being positively injurious to it. The local consumption of gram is trifling, but it forms the chief item of export trade to Múltán. Patches of cotton appear in the lands of almost every village. Except in the irrigated tracts, the *rabí* or spring harvest is much more important than the *kharíf* or autumn crop; in many places no *kharíf* at all is sown. The acreage of the principal staples in 1872-73 was as follows:—*Rabí*—wheat, 162,989; barley, 30,134; gram, 21,416; mustard, 2077; and tobacco, 1303: *Kharíf*—*joár*, 20,509; rice, 18,727; cotton, 16,916; *tíl*, 12,457; *kangni*, 9493; sugar-cane, 498. Irrigation is practised from rivers, canals, and wells. Inundation from rivers forms by far the most important of these agencies, being the mainstay of the largest and most thriving villages. Four inundation canals also fertilize portions of the District, three of which—the Khánwa, and the Old and New Sohág—derive their supply from the Sutlej in LAHORE DISTRICT, while the fourth takes its origin from the Rávi, and waters part of the Gugaira *tahsíl.* Since the British annexation, the canals have undergone great alterations and improvements at the hands of Government officials. The total area irrigated by public works amounts to 66,495 acres, and by private works to 158,700 acres. The desert uplands are only of use economically for the scattered herds of the Great Rávi Játs, and for the manufacture of an impure carbonate of soda (*sajji*) from the alkaline plants with which they abound. Prices of food grains ruled as follows in 1873:—Wheat and gram, 21 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 4d. per cwt.; barley, 28 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. per cwt.; *joár*, 24 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 8d. per cwt.; rice, 6 *sers* per rupee, or 18s. 8d. per cwt.

Commerce, Trade, etc.—The commercial staples of the District include wheat, rice, gram, millets, cotton, wool, *ghí*, hides, and *sajji;* the last four items being the produce of the jungle country. Large numbers of camels are bred for exportation to Lahore, Amritsar (Umritsar), and Gujránwála. The imports comprise sugar, salt, oil, English piece-goods, metals, indigo, and fruits. Country cloth is woven in all the

villages, both for home consumption and for exportation. Pák Pattan is famous for its lacquered wood-work, and has also a small manufacture of coarse striped silk. Interesting experiments in silk-rearing have been carried on at Gugaira, but hitherto with little result. The Lahore and Múltán Railway runs from end to end of the District, following the high dorsal ridge of the Bári Doáb, with five stations at Wán Rádha Rám, Akhára, Montgomery, Harappa, and Chíchawatni. A line of telegraph runs along its side. The District contains no metalled roads; but good unmetalled highways traverse it in every direction, the principal being those which cross it from north-west to south-east, and connect Afghánistán and the Deráját with Delhi. Twenty-six ferries exist upon the Rávi and four on the Sutlej (Satlaj).

Administration.—The District staff ordinarily comprises a Deputy Commissioner, Assistant and extra-Assistant Commissioners, besides the usual fiscal, medical, and constabulary officials. The imperial revenue in 1851-52 amounted to £34,823; in 1871-72, it had risen to £47,954, of which sum the land tax contributed £42,355. The number of courts in 1872-73 was 11, and the number of magistrates 14. The total police force, imperial, municipal, and special, in the same year, numbered 515 men, being at the rate of 1 policeman to every 10·82 square miles of area and to every 697 of the population. Education was carried on by 59 aided and unaided schools, with a total of 1417 pupils, maintained at a cost of £458. The District jail at Montgomery contained 1501 inmates in 1872; daily average, 604. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is subdivided into 4 *tahsíls*, having their headquarters at Gugaira, Dipálpur, Pák Pattan, and Montgomery. The 5 municipal towns of MONTGOMERY, KAMALIA, PAK PATTAN, SAYYIDWALA, and DIPALPUR, had an aggregate revenue in 1875-76 of £949, or an average of 10d. per head of the population (20,689) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The local rainfall varies greatly from year to year, and is generally very deficient. The annual register for the seven years ending 1872-73 is as follows:—1866-67, 4·2 inches; 1867-68, 4·9 inches; 1868-69, 7·2 inches; 1869-70, 23·9 inches; 1870-71, 10 inches; 1871-72, 8 inches; 1872-73, 9·2 inches. The prevailing endemic diseases include fever, small-pox, bowel complaints, bronchitis, and pneumonia. Cholera appeared during the summer of 1872. The total number of deaths reported in that year amounted to 9065, of which 5490 were due to fevers, and 1176 to small-pox. The recorded annual death-rate was 32 per thousand in 1869, 19 per thousand in 1870 and 1871, and 25 per thousand in 1872. The Government charitable dispensary at Montgomery gave relief in 1872 to 3472 persons, of whom 922 were in-patients.

Montgomery.—Eastern *tahsíl* of Montgomery District, Punjab;

consisting mainly of a desert upland in the Bári Doáb. Lat. 30° 16′ 30″ to 31° 11′ N., and long. 72° 30′ to 73° 47′ E.; pop. (1868), 76,408.

Montgomery.—Administrative headquarters of Montgomery District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 2416. Situated in lat. 30° 58′ N., and long. 73° 21′ E., on the Lahore and Múltán Railway, mid-way between those stations, in the midst of an arid region on the central ridge of the Bári Doáb. A creation of British rule, which had no existence in 1855. The headquarters of the District were originally at Gugaira, 30 miles to the north; but, on the opening of the railway in 1864, it was thought desirable to transfer the civil station to some place on the line, and the new village of Sahiwál was selected from its central position. In the succeeding year, it received its present name out of compliment to Sir R. Montgomery, then Lieutenant-Governor. The situation is almost unequalled for dust, heat, and general dreariness. Offices, public buildings, and houses stand dotted about a waterless and treeless plain. At present commercially unimportant, but likely to rise if irrigation be extended to the surrounding tract. Court-house, treasury, police station, *tahsíli*, jail, dispensary, school, staging bungalow, *sarái*, church. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £161, or 1s. 3⅞d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Monwel.—One of the petty States of South Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 4 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £400; tribute of £5 is paid to the Gáekwár.

Monze (or *Monza*).—Frontier cape of Sind, forming the eastern promontory at the mouth of the Hab River.—*See* RAS MUARI.

Moodkee (*Múdki*).—Village and battle-field in Firozpur (Ferozepore) District, Punjab.—*See* MUDKI.

Moodoon.—Revenue circle and village, Amherst District, British Burma.—*See* MU-DUN.

Moo-kyee.—Revenue circle in Amherst District, British Burma.—*See* MU-KYI.

Mooltan.—Division, District, and City, Punjab.—*See* MULTAN.

Moot-htee.—Revenue circle in Tavoy District, British Burma.—*See* MUT-HTI.

Moot-kywon.—Revenue circle in Rangoon District, British Burma.—*See* MUT-KYWON.

Moot-ta-ma.—Revenue circle in Amherst District, British Burma.—*See* MUT-TA-MA.

Mor (or *Maureksha*).—River of Bengal, rising in the District of the Santál Parganás near Tior Hill, a little east of Deogarh. After a general south-easterly course, the Mor enters Bírbhúm in lat. 23° 59′ N., and long. 87° 29′ 30″ E., near the village of Haripur; flows through the District from west to east, and leaves it at Malandí Digar to pass into Murshidábád District, where it joins the BHAGIRATHI, a branch of the

Ganges. The Mor is occasionally navigated during the rains, but only by descending boats.

Mora.—Port in Tanna District, Bombay. Average annual value of trade during five years ending 1873-74—imports, £52,281, and exports, £238,179.

Moradábád (*Murádábád*).—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 28° 13′ 45″ and 29° 15′ 45″ N. lat., and between 78° 7′ and 79° 2′ 45″ E. long. Area, 2272 square miles; population in 1872, 1,122,437 persons. Moradábád forms one of the north-western Districts of the Rohilkhand Division. It is bounded on the north by Bijnaur (Bijnor) and the Tarái; on the east by the Native State of Rámpur; on the south by Budáun; and on the west by the river Ganges. The administrative headquarters are at the city of MORADABAD.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Moradábád lies wholly within the great Gangetic plain, and displays throughout the usual characteristics of that level expanse. The rivers Rámganga and Sót demarcate the country into three minor subdivisions, all of which resemble one another in their general appearance, though differing in points of small detail. The eastern tract, beyond the Rámganga, bordering on the Tarái, consists of a submontane country, with an elevation slightly greater than the plain below, and traversed by a large number of streams, which descend from the Himálayas and fall into the Rámganga on its left bank. An alluvial lowland fringes the main river on either side, and produces excellent crops of grain. The central portion of the District between the Rámganga and the Sót comprises a level Doáb, descending at each end into the valleys of its boundary rivers. The western tract, between the Sót and the Ganges, has a gentle slope toward the latter river on the west, and dips rapidly into the *khádir* or narrow Gangetic lowlands a few miles from the actual bank. The District is well wooded throughout, and mango groves abound in the neighbourhood of the flourishing villages which cluster thickly over its whole surface. Cultivation has spread over almost every part, patches of jungle rarely occurring, and only a few stray pieces of sandy soil or *usar* waste being found at intervals among the uplands. Shallow lakes (*jhíls*) are scattered at places throughout the District, and are in every case utilized for irrigation. The highest point, at Raghuwála, in the eastern portion beyond the Rámganga, has an elevation of 766 feet above sea level; the lowest point, at Chaharpur, rises to only 598 feet. The District as a whole consists of a well-tilled and somewhat monotonous alluvial plain, unrelieved by any striking natural features.

History.—Rohilkhand in the earliest times formed part of the Ahír kingdom of Panchála, and to the present day Ahírs still hold the south-eastern *parganás* of the modern District of Moradábád. Ahichatr in

Bareli appears to have been their capital, though Sambhal in Moradábád early rose to importance. Hiouen Thsang visited Kásipur and Ahichatr in the 7th century, but does not mention Sambhal. From the beginning of the Muhammadan supremacy, however, that town was selected as the headquarters of the local government. In 1266, Ghiyas-ud-dín Balban invaded the District, and attacked Amroha, where he ordered a general massacre. In 1365, Firoz Tughlak invaded Kather, as Rohilkhand was then called, to punish a chief named Rái Kakára, who had murdered the Musalmán governor. Rái Kakara fled to Kumáun, whereupon the Emperor plundered the country, and left Mallik Khitáb as governor. In 1403, Ibráhim, the famous Sultán of JAUNPUR, conquered Sambhal, and placed his own deputy in the town; but four years later, Muhammad Tughlak, Emperor of Delhi, expelled the intruder, and replaced his own officials. In 1473, under Sultán Husáin, the Jaunpur dynasty once more established itself for a while in Sambhal. In 1498, the Emperor Sikandar Lodi recovered the District for the Delhi throne, and resided at Sambhal for four years. Thenceforward, the surrounding country remained a permanent fief of the imperial court. In the middle of the 16th century, Ahya Maran, Governor of Sambhal, rebelled against Sultán Muhammad Adíl, and defeated a force sent against him by the emperor. In the succeeding year, Rájá Mittar Sen, Katháriya, seized Sambhal, and Ahya Maran attacked him. A fierce battle ensued at Kundarkhi, in which the Rájá sustained a crushing defeat. Under Humáyun, Alí Kuli Khán was Governor of Sambhal, and repelled an incursion of the still independent Katháriyas. In 1566, some Mírzás, descendants of Timur, rebelled, and seized Akbar's officers, whom they confined in the fort of Sambhal. Husáin Khán marched against them, and they fled to Amroha. On his following them up to their retreat, they finally escaped across the Ganges. The Emperor Sháh Jahán appointed Rustam Khán, Governor of Kathar; and he founded Moradábád about 1625, calling it first after his own name, but altering it at a later period in honour of Murad Sháh, one of the imperial princes, who was afterwards murdered by Alamgír (Aurangzeb). On the death of that Emperor, and subsequent decline of the central power, the Katháriyas revolted, becoming independent for a time, and the Musalmán governor removed his headquarters to Kanauj. In 1735, however, Muhammad Sháh recovered the Province, and replaced his deputy at Moradábád. For eleven years Rohilkhand remained nominally subject to the Delhi Emperors; but its Rohillá chieftains really maintained a state of all but complete independence. Like the rest of the surrounding plain, Moradábád fell to the Wazír of Oudh in 1744, and to the British in 1801 (*see* Bareli [BAREILLY] District). Thenceforward, it possesses no history until the outbreak of the Mutiny in 1857. News of the Meerut rising arrived on the 12th

of May in that year, and, on the 18th, the Muzaffarnagar rebels were captured. Next day, however, the 29th Native Infantry mutinied, and broke open the jail; but on the 21st, they united with the artillery in repelling a Rámpur mob. On the 31st, the Rámpur cavalry, which had gone to Bulandshahr, returned; and on the succeeding day, news of the Bareli (Bareilly) and Sháhjahánpur outbreaks arrived. On the 3d of June, the 29th Native Infantry fired on the officials, who then abandoned the station, and reached Meerut in safety on the 5th. Ten days later, the Bareli Brigade arrived at Moradábád, and shortly afterwards marched on for Delhi, taking with them the local mutineers. At the end of June, the Nawáb of Rámpur took charge of the District for the English; but he possessed little authority, and a rebel named Majju Khán was the real ruler of Moradábád, till the arrival of General Jones' brigade on 25th April 1858, when he was hanged. Early in May, the District was captured and occupied by the Judge of Moradábád, with a body of troops, and order was restored.

Population.—The Census of 1853 returned the total number of inhabitants at 1,138,461. That of 1865 showed only 1,096,767, being a decrease of 41,694 persons, or 3·8 per cent. The enumeration of 1872 revealed a fresh increase to the total of 1,122,437, being a gain of 25,670 persons, or 2·3 per cent., on the returns of 1865; but a net loss of 16,024 persons, or 1·4 per cent., on the number in 1853. This diminution is due to changes of area. The Census of 1872 extended over 2272 square miles (as against 2698 in 1853, and 2460 in 1865), and disclosed a total population of 1,122,437 persons distributed among 2452 villages or townships, and inhabiting 252,344 houses. From these data, the following averages may be calculated:—Persons per square mile, 494; villages per square mile, 1·1; houses per square mile, 111; persons per village, 458; persons per house, 4·4. The statistics of density show that the District has really been increasing steadily in population since the first regular Census, as the average has risen from 422 persons per square mile in 1853, to 446 in 1865, and 494 in 1872. Classified according to sex, there were at the latter date (exclusive of non-Asiatics)—males, 596,776; females, 525,355; proportion of males, 53·2 per cent. Classified according to age, there were (with the same omission), under 12 years of age—males, 209,089; females, 180,663; total, 389,752 children, or 34·73 per cent. of the population. As regards religious distinctions, the Hindus numbered 751,779, or 67 per cent.; and the Muhammadans, 369,949, or 33 per cent.; so that, roughly speaking, about one-third of the inhabitants belong to the faith of Islám. There were also 403 Christians. The ethnical division yields the following results among the Hindu castes:—Bráhmans, 47,744; Rájputs, 60,721; Banias, 39,261; Ahírs, 26,492; Chamárs, 17,555; Káyasths, 10,214; and Kurmís, 2056: while the

Musalmán population includes 326,251 Shaikhs, 15,888 Sayyids, 3206 Mughals, and 22,726 Patháns. The population shows a marked tendency to gather into considerable towns, of which the District contained in 1872 as many as twelve with a population exceeding 5000, namely—MORADABAD, 62,417; SAMBHAL, 46,974; AMROHA, 34,904; CHANDAUSI, 23,686; HASANPUR, 8417; KANT, or MAUNAGAR, 7030; DHANAURA, 5287; MUGHALPUR, 5334; BHOJPUR, 5121; SIRSI, 5607; NARAULI, 5197; and BACHHRAON, 6768.

Agriculture.—The total area under cultivation in 1872 amounted to 753,258 acres. The staple crops of the District are millets, wheat, pulses, and sugar-cane. The year is divided into the usual seasons of Upper India—the *rabí* or spring harvest, and the *kharíf* or autumn harvest. The acreage under each crop in 1869 was returned as follows:—*Rabí*—wheat and barley, 270,217; pulses, 25,054; oil-seeds, 10,908; miscellaneous, 18,043: *Kharíf*—rice, 75,201; cotton, 42,470; millets, 168,787; oil-seeds, 4958; miscellaneous, 92,632. The staples belonging to neither season were—sugar-cane, 29,286 acres; vegetables, 2255; and fruit-trees, 6953. About 64 lbs. of wheat are sown to the acre, and the total cost of production amounts to £2, 2s.; the out-turn being about 2560 lbs., worth from £2, 8s. to £6, 8s. The cultivation of sugar-cane costs about £5, 16s. an acre, and the expense of cutting and pressing adds about £1, 4s.; so that the total outlay reaches £7, while the yield averages 16,000 lbs., valued at £12, 10s. The last-named industry has largely increased, both in area and value, of late years. The people are well off, and live better than the peasantry of many other parts. The village communities hold their land upon the ordinary tenures of the North-Western Provinces. About two-sevenths of the cultivators possess hereditary rights; the remainder hold as tenants-at-will. Wages have risen considerably of late years. Day-labourers received, in 1850, from 1½d. to 3d. per diem; in 1872, from 3d. to 3¾d.: blacksmiths, in 1850, 4½d. per diem; in 1872, 6d.: brick-layers, in 1850, 3d. to 4½d. per diem; in 1870, 6d. to 7½d. Prices of food grains ruled as follows in 1876:—Wheat, 24 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 8d. per cwt.; *joár*, 29 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 10d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 33 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 5d. per cwt.; rice, 9 *sers* per rupee, or 12s. 5d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Floods upon the Ganges and Rámganga often cause much damage to the crops in the lowlands; but the great danger which overshadows the District is famine, resulting from drought. Scarcity from this or other causes has occurred five times since the introduction of British rule. The first famine, in 1803, directly after the cession, was due to the devastation and losses caused by the Marhattá invasions and the raids of Amír Khán. The second and third famines, in 1825 and 1837, resulted from the scantiness of the rainfall. The fourth, in 1861, overtook the people before they had

recovered from the depredations of the Mutiny; but Government adopted efficient measures of relief, which caused the pressure to be much less severely felt than in 1837. The last famine, in 1868-69, was due to failure of the rains during the summer of the former year, and the absence of showers during the cold weather. Temporary wells proved impossible to construct, and the distress was heightened by the influx of starving immigrants from Rájputána and the south. Nevertheless, by the aid of Government, the difficulty was tided over without serious losses.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The whole District, except the Moradábád *tahsíl*, exports large quantities of grain; while the excepted *tahsíl* exports 200,000 *maunds* of sugar, and imports grain for local consumption. The number of traders, and the scale of their transactions, have increased of late years. The balance of trade stands in favour of the District, but accumulations are not hoarded after the fashion common in India, being rather invested in increasing the business of their owners. Besides Moradábád city, CHANDAUSI and DHANAURA are large marts for the sugar trade. The main line of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway crosses the District, with stations at Moradábád, Kharakpur, Kundarkhi, Bilári, and Chandausi. From the last-named junction station, the Alígarh branch diverges south-westward, and has stations at Bajhoi and Dhanári. The District has also 111 miles of metalled and 585 miles of unmetalled roads. The principal routes are those from Meerut (Mírath) to Bareli (Bareilly), through Moradábád, and from Moradábád to Anúpshahr and to Náini Tál.

Administration.—The District staff ordinarily comprises a Collector-Magistrate, 2 Joint Magistrates, 1 Assistant Magistrate, and 2 Deputy Magistrates, together with the usual fiscal, medical, and constabulary officials. Moradábád is the seat of a civil and sessions judge, whose jurisdiction extends to the neighbouring District of Bijnaur (Bijnor). The whole amount of revenue, imperial, municipal, and local, raised in the District during the year 1875-76 amounted to £198,915, of which sum the land tax contributed £127,725. The total strength of the regular police in 1875 was returned at 963 men, being at the rate of 1 policeman to every 2·55 square miles and to every 1165 of the population. The cost of their maintenance amounted to £10,222. The District jail in the same year contained a daily average number of 400 prisoners, of whom 382 were males and 18 females. The average cost per head amounted to £3, 15s. 0½d., and the average earnings per inmate to 14s. Education in 1875 was carried on by means of 404 schools, with an aggregate of 8792 pupils; being at the rate of 1 school to every 5·62 square miles of area, and 7·8 pupils to every thousand of the population. Of these institutions, 375 are for boys and 29 for girls. The total expenditure amounted to £6295, of which £2058 was provided by the

Provincial treasury. Government maintained, in 1875, 8 *tahsíli* schools in the District, with 444 pupils, at an average annual cost of 14s. 8d. per pupil. For fiscal and administrative purposes, Moradábád is subdivided into 6 *tahsíls* and 6 *parganás*. The District contained, in 1875-76, 5 municipal towns—namely, Moradábád, Dhanaura, Chandausi, Amroha, and Sambhal. Their aggregate income amounted in that year to £16,111; from taxes, £9065, or 1s. 1⅝d. per head of the population (158,131) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Moradábád is generally healthy, except in the submontane tract which borders on the Tarái, and in the lowlands of the Ganges and Sót. It is neither very dry nor very moist, and showers ordinarily occur in every month of the year. During the ten years ending 1870, the average annual rainfall amounted to 37·6 inches; the maximum in that period being 49·3 inches in 1867-68, and the minimum 20·4 inches in 1868-69. The annual mean temperature was 74·5° F.; the lowest monthly mean being 56° in January, and the highest 86° in June. The total number of deaths reported in 1875 was 23,240, or 20·71 per thousand; the average death-rate during the previous six years being returned at 21·03 per thousand. Five Government charitable dispensaries—at Moradábád, Chandausi, Bilári, Amrohá, and Sambhal—afforded relief during that year to 40,188 persons, of whom 585 were in-door patients.

Moradábád.—North-eastern *tashíl* of Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces; consisting mainly of a level plain adjoining the State of Rámpur. Area, 234 square miles, of which 155 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 230,794; land revenue, £20,370; total Government revenue, £20,793; rental paid by cultivators, £45,834; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 3¼d.

Moradábád.—Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 62,417, including 31,888 Hindus and 30,212 Muhammadans. Situated in lat. 28° 49′ 55″ N., and long. 78° 49′ 30″ E., on the right bank of the river Rámganga, 10 miles from the Rámpur border. Founded, in 1625, by Rustam Khán, and named after Prince Murad Bakhsh, son of the Emperor Sháh Jahán. Station on Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. Fort, founded by Rustam Khán, overhangs the bank of the Rámganga; Jamá Masjíd, or chief mosque, a handsome building erected in 1634; tomb of Nawáb Azmat-ul-lá Khán, Governor of Moradábád. Centre of trade in country produce. For Mutiny narrative, see MORADABAD DISTRICT. Jail, telegraph office, treasury, charitable dispensary. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £7144; from taxes, £4172, or 1s. 4¾d. per head of population (59,570) within municipal limits.

Mora-ka-kanda. — Mountain range in Bashahr, Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Punjab, lying between 31° 10′ and 31° 29′ N. lat., and

between 77° and 77° 49′ E. long. Stretches in a south-westerly direction from the Himálayan chain, which bounds Kunáwár on the south, to Urki in the State of Bhágal. Forms the watershed between the Sutlej (Satlaj) on the west and the tributaries of the Jumna (Jamuná) on the east.

Morámárnai.—River in Darrang District, Assam.—*See* MARAMARNAI.

Morar.—The British cantonment of Gwalior, and headquarters of the Gwalior Division of the Bengal Army; situated in the State of Gwalior, Central India, in lat. 26° 13′ 40″ N., long. 78° 16′ 30″ E., on an affluent of the Chambal river, a large tributary of the Jumna (Jamuná). Morar takes its name from a small village situated on the river, which is now best known as the Morar. It stands on a level plain of dark alluvial, but somewhat shaly, soil of no great depth, covering the eastern edge of the sandstone rocks which culminate in the fortress of Gwalior, which has been called the Gibraltar of India. Morar is connected with the fortress by a good level road, about 2 miles long, shaded by an avenue of fine trees. This road branches, within easy range of the fortress guns, on the north to Agra, and on the south to the ancient city of Gwalior, the residence of the Mahárájá Sindhia.

The British cantonments lie along the right or easterly bank of the Morar river, which is crossed by a handsome stone bridge. The civil lines lie on the Gwalior side; and here reside the civil and political staff of the Gwalior Agency, who are under the control of the Government of India, exercised through the Agent to the Governor-General for Central India, whose headquarters are at Indore. The Brigadier and his staff look to the same central political authority in all matters not purely military, regarding which latter they report to the Commander-in-Chief. The public works or engineering branches are under the control of the Agent to the Governor-General, who has a public works secretary and chief engineer at his headquarters. The Brigadier-General commands the fortress, the Jhánsi force, and various outlying stations. In the fortress are a few companies of Europeans, comprising sufficient artillerymen to work the batteries, which are heavily armed. In cantonments, the Native infantry have their lines along an upper reach of the river, to the south or right front of the force; and below or to the north of the Native infantry, are the lines of the European officers, stretching along a broad reach of the river, here dammed up so as to form a considerable lake, and afford bathing for the troops. About ten years ago, the Government began the demolition of the unhealthy and unsightly hut-barracks hastily run up after the Mutiny, and have erected large barracks, built of the fine sandstone of the Gwalior Hills, echeloned along the plain east of the officers' lines. No expense was spared to make these in all

respects sanitary and commodious, and as comfortable as the climate admits. Thus trees and gardens, irrigated by an abundant supply of good water, are gradually effecting an entire change on this bleak and barren plain; whilst a railroad to Agra, about 60 miles distant, and excellent high roads, stretching out in various directions, add much to the comfort of the troops, and the strategical importance of this large station. The climate and topography are fully treated of under GWALIOR.

The story of Morar during the Mutiny is a melancholy one; and the defects then noticed in its purely native garrison and surroundings (for it has twice proved seriously false to both the British and Native Governments) have been kept steadily in view in its new organization. The battle-fields of Panniar to the south of Gwalior, and Mahárájpur to the north, tell alike of the inflammable materials here situated, and also of the bravery and skill displayed by our Indian army against great odds.

Morása.—Municipal town in Ahmedábád District, Bombay; situated 52 miles north-east of Ahmedábád, in lat. 23° 27′ 45″ N., and long. 73° 20′ 45″ E. Pop. (1872), 7436; municipal income, £201. Post office.

Morawa and Tharad.—Native State under the Palanpur Agency, Bombay.—*See* THARAD.

Morbhanj (including *Bámanghátí*).—The most northerly of the Native States of Orissa, Bengal, lying between 21° 17′ and 22° 33′ 46″ N. lat., and between 85° 42′ 30″ and 87° 13′ 55″ E. long. Total area, 4243 square miles; pop. (1872), 258,680. Bounded on the north by the Districts of Singbhúm, Mánbhúm, and Midnapur; on the east by Balasor District; on the south by the State of Nílgiri and Purí District; and on the west by the State of Keunjhar.

Physical Aspects.—Morbhanj State presents every variety of soil and scenery. It abounds in rich valleys; but a vast extent still remains clothed with primeval jungle, of which a large proportion might be brought under tillage. In the southern portion of the State, the Meghásáni Hill attains a height of 3824 feet above the sea. Large herds of elephants roam through the mountains and forests of Morbhanj, and very successful *khedá* operations have been carried on during the last few years. Morbhanj State is divided into three parts—Morbhanj proper, Upen-bágh, and Bámanghátí; the last is under British management, and Upen-bágh under surveillance, a body of our police being quartered there at the Rájá's expense. Chief villages, Baripáda, in lat. 21° 56′ 5″ N., and long. 86° 45′ 41″ E.; and Daspur, in lat. 21° 57′ 40″ N., and long. 86° 7′ 11″ E.

Population.—Of the total population of 258,680 persons, 94,526 were returned in the Census of 1872 as inhabiting the Bámanghátí tract, and 164,154 Morbhanj proper with Upen-bágh. In Bámanghátí,

the Hindus numbered 23,500, or 24·9 per cent. of the population; Muhammadans, 479, or 0·5 per cent.; 'others' (including aboriginal tribes, etc.), 70,547, or 74·6 per cent. In Morbhanj proper, the number of Hindus was 64,714, or 39·4 per cent.; Muhammadans, 748; 'others' (including the aboriginal tribes, chiefly Santáls and Kols), 98,692. Morbhanj yields an estimated revenue of £20,500 to its chief, and pays an annual tribute to the British Government of £106.

Administration, etc.—The militia is returned at 972, and the police force at 483 men. The Rájá supports 8 schools in the State, and 20 others are mentioned in the Census Report. Native chronicles relate that the principality of Morbhanj was founded, more than two thousand years ago, by a relative of the Rájá of Jáipur in Rájputána. The chief's emblem of signature is a pea-fowl, from a tradition that the family originally sprang from a pea-fowl's egg; and the killing of this heraldic bird is strictly prohibited throughout the State.

Morchopna.—One of the petty States of Und-sarviya, in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 1 village, with 1 independent tribute-payer. Estimated revenue in 1876, £70; tribute of £15 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 18s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Mori.—Hill in the District of the Santál Parganás, Bengal. One of the principal peaks in the northern section of the Rájmahál Hills, the most important range in the District, overlooking the great central valley. Height, about 2000 feet above the sea.

Morna (*Múrna*).—River in Berar, which flows through the town of Akola, where a dam maintains a fine sheet of water, over 3 miles in length. This lasts throughout the year, and is of essential service to cultivation. The Morna is a tributary of the Púrna.

Moro. — *Táluk* in Naushahro Deputy Collectorate, Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind, lying between 26° 24′ and 26° 54′ N. lat., and between 67° 51′ and 68° 42′ E. long. Area, 704 square miles; pop. (1872), 45,551; gross revenue (1873-74), £6607.

Moro.—Municipal town and headquarters of Moro *táluk;* situated in lat. 26° 40′ N., and long. 68° 2′ E., on the main road from Haidarábád to Rohri; 15 miles south-west from Naushahro. Headquarters of a *múkhtyárkar*, and containing the usual public buildings. Pop. (1872), 1738; municipal revenue (1873-74), £145. Manufactures—soap, ornamental armlets, and coarse cloth. Considerable transit trade conducted by *káfilas* or caravans from Khorasán. Moro is said to have been founded, about two hundred years ago, by one Bazid Fakír, of the Moro tribe.

Morrellganj.—Town and port in Jessor District, Bengal; situated in lat. 22° 27′ 35″ N., and long. 89° 54′ E., on the Pánguchí, 2½ miles above its confluence with the Baleswar or Haringháta, of which it is a

feeder. The town is the property of Messrs. Morrell & Lightfoot, who converted this part of the country from impenetrable jungle into a prosperous rice-growing tract, dotted with thriving villages (1872). The river is a fine fresh water one, about a quarter of a mile broad, with deep water from bank to bank, affording good holding ground for ships, and possessing a well-sheltered anchorage. Morrellganj was formally declared a port by the Government of Bengal in November 1869, and buoys were laid down in the following month. The future of the port and settlement is, however, still a matter of much uncertainty. Its very existence seems almost to depend upon the energy and capital of the individual Englishmen who reclaimed it from the jungle.

Morsí.—Town in Ellichpur District, Berar; situated in lat. 21° 20′ N., and long. 78° 4′ E., in the centre of the *táluk* of the same name, about 40 miles east of Ellichpur, on the banks of the Narka river. Pop. (1867), 5332. Headquarters of the *tahsíldár*. Small market on Tuesdays. Municipal revenue, £122. The *patel* and inhabitants have built a house for the Government school. The police station and travellers' bungalow are located in a dismantled earthen fort.

Mortakká.—North-west *tahsíl* or revenue Subdivision of Nimár District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 29,300, residing in 167 villages or townships and 5722 houses, on an area of 649 square miles. The town of Mortakká lies in lat. 22° 13′ N., and long. 76° 5′ E.

Morvi.—Native State within the Political Agency of Káthiáwár, in the Province of Guzerat (Gujarát), Bombay, lying between 22° 23′ and 23° 6′ 30″ N. lat., and between 70° 30′ and 71° 3′ 30″ E. long. Area, 1062 square miles; pop. (1872), 90,616; number of villages, 125. The country is generally flat. Water is obtained from wells and rivers. The river Machhu, on which the chief town of MORVI stands, is never dry. The climate near the coast is good, but fever is common throughout the State. Chief products—grain, sugar-cane, and cotton. Salt and coarse cloth are manufactured. The port of Wawania, on the Gulf of Cutch, belongs to this State. Land communication is kept up by carts and pack-bullocks. The present (1876-77) chief of Morvi, Thákur Sáhib Wághjí, is a Hindu of the Jareja Rájput caste, and was born about 1859. He has been educated at the Rájkumár College at Rájkot; and the affairs of Morvi during his minority have been managed by a joint administration, consisting of a British officer and the former Minister of the State. Morvi claims to be directly descended from the Cutch (Kachchh) line, and not through the Nawánagar family, and it possesses a small Subdivision in Cutch, with a port at Jangli. Many disputes have arisen with the Ráo of Cutch regarding this port and the sea-borne trade. The fourth-class State of MALIA is an offshoot from Morvi. Tradition represents the chief of Morvi as the descendant of the eldest son and lawful heir of

the Ráo of Cutch, who, in the latter part of the 17th century, was murdered by a younger brother, and whose family thereupon fled to this place, then a dependency of Cutch. Their possession of Morvi was subsequently sanctioned by the Cutch ruler. Morvi is officially ranked as a 'second-class' State. The chief entered into the same engagements as the other Káthiáwár chiefs in 1807. He has power to try for capital offences without the express permission of the Political Agent, his own subjects only. He enjoys an estimated gross yearly revenue of £75,844; pays a tribute of £5847 jointly to the British Government and the Gáekwár of Baroda; and maintains a military force of 386 men. The succession of his house follows the rule of primogeniture. There are at present 27 schools in the State, with a total of 979 pupils.

Morvi.—Chief town of the State of the same name, Káthiáwár Agency, Bombay; situated in lat. 22° 49′ N., and long. 70° 53′ E., on the river Machhu, which, 22 miles farther north, enters the Gulf of Cutch. Pop. (1872), 12,872.

Morwára.—State and town in the Palanpur Agency, Bombay.—*See* THARAD.

Moscos.—Group of islands off the coast of Tavoy, Tenasserim Division, British Burma; extending in a chain parallel to the shore, from lat. 13° 47′ to 14° 28′ N., and distant from it from 3 to 5 leagues. There is a safe channel between, with soundings varying from 10 to 15 fathoms, deepening generally near the islands. The Moscos are divided into 3 groups, the Northern, Middle, and Southern, called in Burmese Hien-tsai, Moung-ma-gan, and Loung-lún respectively. The south and middle groups contain the largest and highest islands, between which are safe channels.

Moth.—Central *tahsíl* of Jhánsi District, North-Western Provinces; consisting of a level plain, dotted with hills, and intersected by the river Betwa. Area, 247 square miles, of which 143 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 55,391; land revenue, £12,028; total Government revenue, £13,289; rental paid by cultivators, £26,812; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 6⅝d.

Motíhárí.—*Sadr* or headquarters Subdivision of Champáran District, Bengal, lying between 26° 14′ 30″ and 27° N. lat., and between 84° 32′ 30″ and 85° 21′ E. long. Area, 1470 square miles; villages, 1150; houses, 135,538; pop. (1872), 865,654, of whom 750,156 were Hindus, 115,411 Muhammadans, 80 Christians, and 7 of other denominations not classified. Average number of inhabitants per square mile, 589; persons per village, 753; villages per square mile, 0·78; houses per square mile, 92; average number of persons per house, 6·4; proportion of males in total population, 51 per cent. This Subdivision consists of the 6 police circles of Motíhári, Adápur, Dháká-Rám-

chandra, Kesariyá, Madhuban, and Govindganj. In 1869, it contained 3 magisterial and revenue courts; a regular police 309 strong, besides 1800 village watchmen; the cost of administration was returned at £10,075, 4s.

Motíhári.—Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Champáran District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 39′ 46″ N., long. 84° 57′ 29″ E.; pop. (1872), 8266; municipal revenue (1876-77), £231; rate of taxation, 6⅝d. per head of population within municipal limits. The town is situated along the east bank of a lake, known as the Motíhári Lake. Small *bázár*, jail, civil offices, indigo factory, and dispensary. Good roads run to Bettiá, Dháká, Seráhá, Motípur, Sattar *ghát*, and Govindganj.

Motíjharná.—Waterfall in the Santál Parganás, Bengal; picturesquely situated at an angle where two hill ranges meet, in the north-eastern corner of the District, close to the Mahárájpur station on the loop-line of the East Indian Railway. The fall is formed by the waters of a small hill stream, which leaps over two successive ledges of columnar basalt. The base of the lower ledge is being gradually eaten away into the form of a cave behind the fall. An annual fair is held here in February.

Motí-taláo (*'Lake of Pearls'*).—Large tank in Mysore District, Mysore, formed by a dam carried across the gorge where several hill streams unite. Lat. 13° 10′ N., long. 78° 25′ E. The embankment is said to have been constructed by the Vishnuvite reformer Rámánujachári, who lived at the neighbouring town of MELUKOT. Irrigation is effected by means of a channel, commanding about 4 square miles of country. The tank, if full, would contain two years' supply for this area; but in recent years, the level of the water has rarely risen as high as the mouth of the channel.

Mo-tsa-gyan.—Revenue circle in the Ta-pwon township, Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Cultivated principally in the northern portions. Pop. (1876-77), 4676; gross revenue, £1157.

Mo-tsay.—Revenue circle in Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2360; gross revenue, £803.

Mo-tsay-gyí.—Revenue circle in Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 2256; gross revenue, £1265.

Motupalli.—Small seaport town (identified with the *Mutfili* of Marco Polo) in Kistna District, Madras. Lat. 15° 43′ 40″ N., long. 80° 20′ E.; pop. (1871), 1142; number of houses, 136.

Motúr.—Open plateau in Chhindwára District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 22° 17′ N., and long. 78° 37′ E., 34 miles north-west of Chhindwára, 3500 feet above sea level. The thick, low jungle which covers the country round injures the climate during the rainy months and the autumn; for the rest of the year the air is delightful, while the

soil and water are excellent. Motúr has been tried as a sanitarium for European troops from Kamthí (Kamptee), but its inaccessibility and their distaste for so lonely a spot rendered the experiment a failure.

Moulmein.—Town in Amherst District, British Burma.—*See* MAULMAIN.

Moung-daw.—Headquarters of the Naaf township, Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Contains a court-house, Government cess-school, telegraph office, market-place, and police station. A ferry-boat plies between this town and Chittagong District. Pop. (1877), 547. During the first Anglo-Burmese war, Moung-daw was occupied by the British on the 1st of February 1825.

Moung-ma-gan.—Revenue circle in Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 26 square miles, including the Middle Mosco Islands. Pop. (1876-77), 3483; gross revenue, £696.

Moung-ma-gan.—Group of islands off the coast of Tavoy, in British Burma.—*See* MOSCOS.

Moung-mai-shoung.—Revenue circle in the north-eastern township of Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Covered for the most part with grass and tree forest. Pop. (1876-77), 1863; gross revenue, £488.

Mowa.—Town in Jáipur (Jeypore) State, Rájputána; situated in lat. 27° 3′ N., and long. 76° 59′ E., on the route from Agra to Ajmere (Ajmír), 70 miles west of the former and 158 east of the latter. It is surrounded by an earthen rampart, with bastions; and has at its north-east angle a fort belonging to the Rájá of Jáipur. Boileau calculated that the population numbered about 10,000—an estimate which Thornton (1862) considers exaggerated.

Mowa.—Port on the south-east coast of the peninsula of Káthiáwár; situated in lat. 21° 3′ N., and long. 71° 43′ E., at the head of a small bay. Although a very indifferent port with unprotected anchorage, there is considerable traffic. Distant from Ahmedábád 150 miles south; from Bombay 160 north-west.

Mowár.—Town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces, on the Wardhá river, 6 miles north of Jalálkherá; surrounded by a fertile country, covered with gardens and groves. Pop. (1866), 3762, engaged in cultivation or the manufacture of ordinary cotton cloth. Mowár has a good *bázár*, and school and police buildings. Two large dams have been made to restrain the river from flooding the town during the monsoons. The place does a good trade; but is thought unhealthy.

Moyár.—The most important stream of the Nílgiri plateau, rising on Makúrti Peak, Nílgiris District, Madras Presidency, in lat. 11° 35′ N., and long. 76° 37′ E. After receiving the drainage of two large valleys, it flows past Páikara and Nediwattam, and enters the plains at the

north-west corner of the range. It joins the Bhaváni at Denáikankotái.

Mro-houng ('*Old Town*').—Township in Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. So named from containing Old Arakan, the capital of the ancient Arakanese kingdom. It is situated on the Kú-la-dan river; on the north and east are forest-clad hills, but below and to the west of these the country is rich and fertile, and towards the south, much intersected by creeks, which serve as means of communication. The township is divided into 12 revenue circles. Pop. (1876-77), 24,316; gross revenue, £9438.

Mro-houng (formerly called *Arakan*).—Ancient capital of Arakan, and now headquarters of the township of the same name in Akyab District, British Burma. Lat. 20° 44′ N., long. 93° 26′ E. It appears to have been known to the geographer Ptolemy under the name of Triglyphon, which is probably derived from the cognizance of the town—once a famous seat of Buddhism—the sacred Buddhist triglyph or trident, the three prongs of which represent Buddha, the Law, and the Congregation, the uniting line at the base representing their unity. Mro-houng is built on a rocky plain, at the head of a branch of the Kú-la-dan river, about 50 miles from its mouth, and almost at the extreme limit of tidal influence. The ruins of the ancient fort still exist; they consist of three square enclosures, one within the other, surrounded by masonry walls of considerable thickness. Traces of the massive outer city wall may also be seen; the platform, on which stood the palace, yet remains, and within the sacred precincts stand the court-house and police lines. On the conquest of Arakan by the Burmese in 1784, the town made no resistance, and became shortly afterwards the capital of one of the four Districts into which the country was divided. During the first Burmese war, the British troops under General Morrison attacked Arakan, which was found to be strongly fortified, and was only taken after a severe contest. The capture of this stronghold led to the immediate retirement of the whole Burmese army from the Province; and General Morrison cantoned the greater portion of his forces in the town. As soon as the rains commenced, early in May, disease broke out in the cantonments, and carried off more victims than in any other portion of the country in which British troops were quartered; indeed, it may be said without exaggeration that the Arakanese army was almost destroyed by it. This excessive mortality was due to the unhealthiness of the place, which Dr. Mason describes thus in the 2nd vol. of the *Transactions of the Medical and Physical Society of Calcutta*:—'Its site is such as one would at first sight pronounce to be prolific of those noxious exhalations, whatever they may be, that are generally allowed to engender intermittent fever. It lies on the banks of a muddy river,

or rather ramifications of a river, buried among hills at a distance of nearly 40 miles from the sea, and surrounded on every side by jungle and morass. The tide overflows the flat borders of the river to a considerable extent; its reflux converts these into a noisome swamp, and in this swamp, strange to say, a great part of Arakan is built.' It can only be a cause for wonder that such a place should have remained for 350 years the capital of a kingdom. Soon after the close of the war, the troops were removed, and the headquarters of the Division placed at Akyab. From this time, Mro-houng gradually sank in importance, and now (1877) contains a population of only 2068 persons. It contains a market and a Government school.

Mro-thit.—Revenue circle in the Kyouk-hpyú township, Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876), 3438; gross revenue, £4152.

Mro-thit.—Revenue circle in the Naaf township, Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 3361; gross revenue, £859.

Mro-thit-khyoung. — Revenue circle in Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma; situated on the shores of the Naaf estuary, and originally a part of Mro-thit. Pop. (1876-77), 11,338; gross revenue, £1718. Chief products—rice, wood-oil, mustard seed, and salt.

Mubárrikpur.—Agricultural town in Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 5′ 15″ N., long. 83° 20′ E.; pop. (1872), 5795; area, 100 acres.

Mudak-dor.—Sacred hill on the bank of the Káveri river, near TALKAD in Mysore District, Mysore. The *játra*, or festival of the god Mallikarjuna, held for 15 days in January or February, is annually attended by 10,000 persons.

Múdbidri.—Ruined town in South Kanara District, Madras. Lat. 13° 4′ 10″ N., long. 75° 2′ 30″ E. A very old Jain city, which, to judge from the deserted streets with their moss-grown house sites, probably once contained many thousands of inhabitants. There are no fewer than 18 Jain *bastis* or stone pagodas in the town. These are maintained by old endowments and subscriptions from Jains throughout the District, and contain some superb carving, and many valuable inscriptions. They bear witness to the marvellous industry and devotion of the Jains.

Muddebihál.—Municipal town in Kaládgi District, Bombay; situated 48 miles east by north of Kaládgi, in lat. 16° 20′ 25″ N., and long. 76° 10′ 20″ E. Pop. (1872), 3547; annual municipal income, £173. Sub-judge's court and post office.

Mudhol.—Native State within the British Political Agency of the Southern Marhattá Country, Bombay, lying between 16° 6′ 50″ and 16°

26′ 45″ N. lat., and between 75° 4′ 21″ and 75° 31′ 56″ E. long. Area, 362 square miles; pop. (1872), 58,921, distributed over 81 villages. Bounded on the north by Jámkhandi State; on the east by the Bágalkot Subdivision; on the south by Kaládgi District and Kolhápur State; and on the west by the Gokák Subdivision of Belgáum District. The general aspect of the country is flat, with slight undulations. The scenery is monotonous, and, except during the rainy weather, the country presents a parched and barren aspect. There are no large mountains, the small hill ranges not being more than 150 feet high. The greater portion of the soil is black, the remainder being the inferior description of red and stony land known as *mál.* The only river passing through the State is the Ghátprabha, which is navigable during the monsoons by boats of less than a ton burden; but it is never used as a means of communication for travelling or trade. It waters in its course about half the villages of the State, and irrigates by its annual floods a considerable area of land. Irrigation is also carried on by damming up small rivulets, and turning off the water in the direction required; by drawing water from wells and pools by means of leather bags; and where the elevation of the bed of a reservoir is sufficient, by leading channels into the neighbouring fields. As in other parts of the Deccan, the climate is very dry, the heat from March to May being oppressive. The chief diseases are cholera in the hot season and the beginning of the rains, and small-pox and fever, which last generally increases in the months of June and July. The principal agricultural products are Indian millet, wheat, gram, and cotton. Cotton cloth and articles of native female apparel are the chief manufactures. The chief of Mudhol State belongs to the Bhonslá family, of Kshattriya origin, descended, according to tradition, from a common ancestor with the great Sivají. This name, however, has been entirely superseded by the second designation of Ghorpade, which is said to have been acquired by one of the family who managed to scale a fort previously deemed impregnable, by fastening a cord around the body of a *ghorpad* or iguana. All that is authentically known of the history of the family is that it held a high position at the Court of Bijápur, from which it received the lands it still holds. The Mudhol chiefs were the most determined opponents of Sivají during his early conquests, but on the overthrow of the Muhammadan power they joined the Marhattás, and accepted military command from the Peshwá. The grandfather of the present ruler (who died in 1854) was the first who became a feudatory of the British Government. The present (1876-1877) chief is Venkatráo Balwant Ráo Rájá Ghorpade, a Hindu o the Marhattá race. He is a minor of seventeen, and is being educated under the supervision of the Assistant Political Agent of Kolhápur. During the minority of the chief, the State is administered by a British

officer. The chief enjoys an estimated gross yearly revenue of £14,647, and pays a tribute of £217 to the British Government. He is officially recognised as a 'first-class' Sardár in the Southern Marhattá Country, and maintains a military force of 700 men. He has power to try his own subjects for capital offences without the express permission of the Political Agent. The family of the chief hold a title authorizing adoption, and follow the rule of primogeniture in matters of succession. There are 21 schools in the State, with 682 pupils.

Mudhol.—Chief town of Mudhol State, Bombay; situated in lat. 16° 19′ 50″ N., and long. 75° 19′ 20″ E. Pop. (1872), 6366.

Múdivedu.—Town in Cuddapah District, Madras. Lat. 14° 1′ 30″ N., long. 78° 44′ 10″ E.; pop. (1871), 5254; number of houses, 833.

Múdkí (*Moodkee*).—Village in Firozpur (Ferozepore) District, Punjab; memorable for the battle fought on 18th December 1845, between the Síkhs and the British. Lies in lat. 30° 47′ N., and long. 74° 55′ 15″ E., on the plain, 26 miles south of the Sutlej (Satlaj). Two days before the battle, which inaugurated the first Síkh war, the enemy crossed the boundary river at Firozpur. They were met by a much smaller British force at Múdkí, and driven from their position, with the loss of 17 guns, after a hard contest, in which the British lost a large proportion of officers. Monuments have been erected on the battle-field in honour of those who fell.

Mú-dún (*Moo-doon*).—Revenue circle in the Zaya township, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Consists for the most part of extensive plains, which are badly drained. Pop. (1877), 3268; land revenue, £417, and capitation tax, £302.

Mú-dún (*Moo-doon*).—Chief village in the Mú-dún revenue circle; 9 miles distant from Maulmain. Contains a court-house, a Public Works Department Inspection Bungalow, and a police station. In the neighbourhood are some ornamental pieces of water, generally known as the 'Sacred Lakes.' Pop. (1877), 2475.

Mugdái.—Spring and cavern in the Perzágarh Hills, Chánda District, Central Provinces. The ascent leads to a rocky platform, beyond which rises a smooth sheer precipice, 100 feet high, of sandstone rock, now blackened by exposure. Over this, in the rains, plunges a broad cascade, reduced in the driest weather to a trickling stream, which falls into a small cleft in the platform below, where, through the year, is an unvarying depth of 7 feet of water. A few yards off is a large shallow cavern, sacred to the Máná goddess, Mugdái. On this platform the inhabitants of the neighbouring villages found a refuge from the Pindárís; and a small fair is still held there.

Mughalbhin.—Chief town in the Játi *táluk* of Sháhbandar Deputy Collectorate, Karáchi (Kurrachee) District, Sind; situated in lat. 24° 22′ N., and long. 68° 18′ 30″ E., on the banks of the Gungro, a portion of

the Pinyári branch of the Indus. Connected by good roads with Mírpur Batoro, distant 26 miles north; with Sháhbandar, 30 miles south-west; and with Belo, 33 miles north-west. Mughalbhin stands on the highway to Cutch (Kachchh) from Sind, and is 48 miles from Lakhpat on the Kori creek, over which is a ferry. Headquarters of a *múkhtiárkár*, with the usual public offices. Pop. (1872), 1533; municipal revenue (1873-74), £287. About 2 miles south of Mughalbhin is an embankment 200 yards long by 13⅓ broad, lined with a fine avenue of *bábul* trees; the fresh-water channel above is called the Gungro, and below is the old salt-water channel of the Pinyári. Trade in grain and coarse cloths. Rice is extensively grown in the neighbourhood. A large fair is held annually in February in honour of a Muhammadan *pír* or saint, whose tomb is then visited by about 5000 persons.

Mughalpur.—Agricultural town in Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 28° 55′ 43″ N., long. 78° 45′ 55″ E.; pop. (1872), 5334, consisting of 2211 Hindus and 3123 Muhammadans. Lies on the open plain, 7 miles north-west of Moradábád, and 1 mile west of the Rámganga river.

Mughal Sarái (*Mogul Serai*).—Town in Benares District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 25° 16′ 30″ N., long. 83° 10′ 45″ E. Station on East Indian Railway, 470 miles from Calcutta (Howrah), and 6 miles from Benares. Branch railway to the Ganges opposite Benares city.

Mugori.—State in the Mahi Kánta Agency, Bombay.—*See* MAGORI.

Muhamdi.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Kheri District, Oudh; lying between 27° 41′ and 28° 10′ N. lat., and between 80° 4′ 30″ and 80° 41′ E. long. Bounded on the north and east by Kheri *tahsíl*; on the south by Sítápur and Hardoi *tahsíls*; and on the west by Sháhjahánpur District in the North-Western Provinces. The *tahsíl* comprises the 7 *parganás* of Muhamdi, Pasgáwán, Aurangábád, Kásta, Haidarábád, Magdapur, and Atwá Pipária. Area, 666 square miles, of which 304 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 204,129, viz. 181,086 Hindus and 23,043 Muhammadans. Average density of population, 266 per square mile; number of villages, 663.

Muhamdi.—*Parganá* in Kheri District, Oudh; bounded on the west by the Gumti, which separates it from Magdapur and Atwá Pipária, and on the south by a tributary of the same river, which divides it from Pasgáwan. Along the banks of the Gumti, the land is high and sandy for a short distance; it then rather suddenly sinks into a loamy flat of high fertility and fair cultivation. Good crops of cereals and sugar-cane are produced. Area, 116 square miles, of which 66 are under cultivation. Pop. (1869), 49,016, viz. 42,371 Hindus and 6645 Musalmáns. Of the 136 villages comprising the *parganá*, 49½ are

owned by Muhammadans, 26 by Kshattriyas, 21 by Bráhmans, and 16 by Government.

Muhamdi was settled as a *parganá* centuries ago. The town which bears that name was not then founded, but the country was fiscally organized by the Sayyids of Barwár long before the end of the 17th century. They held Muhamdi and 17 other *parganás* in a position of some independence during the decline of the Mughal Empire. Some four or five generations back, their representative was displaced by a Sombansi Rájput of Hardoi, who had been captured and converted to Islám, and married to a slave girl of the Sayyid chief; he ousted his master's son from the estate and title about 1743 A.D. This family retained possession until 1793 A.D., when the then representative was seized as a rebel and defaulter, and the estate broken up. The *parganá* of Muhamdi is now owned principally by small proprietors.

Muhamdi.—Town in Kheri District, Oudh, and headquarters of Muhamdi *tahsíl* and *parganá*; situated 3 miles west of the Gumti river, on the road from Lakhimpur to Sháhjahánpur, in lat. 27° 57′ 15″ N., and long. 80° 15′ E. Formerly the headquarters of the District, which were removed to Kheri upon the reoccupation of the country after the suppression of the mutiny. Pop. (1869), 4729, viz. 3514 Hindus and 1215 Muhammadans. A daily and a bi-weekly market. Sugar manufacture and Government distillery. Besides the usual Sub-divisional court buildings, the town contains a police station, Anglo-vernacular school, and charitable dispensary.

Muhammadábád. — *Tahsíl* of Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces; lying on the north bank of the Ganges, and consisting chiefly of alluvial lowland. Area, 249 square miles, of which 212 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 169,421; land revenue, £20,109; total Government revenue, £21,822; rental paid by cultivators, £41,478; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 6¼d.

Muhammadábád.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Azamgarh District, North-Western Provinces. Area, 428 square miles, of which 215 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 275,559; land revenue, £24,356; total Government revenue, £26,779; rental paid by cultivators, £62,382; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 9⅝d.

Muhammadábád.—*Tahsíl* of Farrukhábád District, North-Western Provinces, lying on the west bank of the river Ganges. Area, 343 square miles, of which 222 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 256,516; land revenue, £23,977; total Government revenue, £28,350; rental paid by cultivators, £39,528; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 2⅛d.

Muhammadgarh.—One of the Native States in the Bhopál Agency, under the Central India Agency and the Government of India; lying between Bhílsa and Rahatgarh. Area, about 80 square miles; estimated

pop. (1875), 2938; revenue in the same year, £700. No tribute is paid. Muhammadgarh was originally part of Kúrwái State; but on the death of Nawáb Muhammad Dalil Khán of Kúrwái, the latter State was divided between his two sons, Muhammadgarh falling to the younger, Asan-ullá Khán. The present chief, Nawáb Háfiz Kúli Khán, is a Pathán, and was born about 1826. The chief products of the State are opium and grain. Chief town, Muhammadgarh; lat. 23° 39′ N., long. 78° 12′ E.

Muhammad Khan's Tando.—Subdivision of Haidarábád District, Sind.—*See* TANDO MUHAMMAD KHAN.

Muhammadpur.—Village and produce depôt in Sáran District, Bengal. Pop. (1872), 4140. One of the principal rice-importing marts of the District.

Muhammadpur.—Town in Patná District, Bengal. Lat. 25° 30′ N., long. 85° 46′ E. It forms in reality a suburb of BARH. Pop. (1872), 6089. Municipal income (1871), £124; rate of taxation, 4¾d. per head of population. Municipal police, 21 men.

Muhammadpur.—Village on the right bank of the Madhumatí river, in Jessor District, Bengal; lying in lat. 23° 23′ 45″ N., and long. 89° 38′ 30″ E., 14 miles south-east of Mágurá. A large town at the time of our occupation, but desolated between 1836 and 1843 by an epidemic fever; it now survives as a small market village, with a purely local trade, except in the rains, when large numbers of *hilsá* fish are exported to Calcutta. Muhammadpur was founded towards the end of the 17th century, and is ascribed to Sítárám Rái, landholder of Bhúshná, east of Muhammadpur on the Barásiá. A quadrangular fort, many fine tanks and other ancient remains bear witness to its former importance. For details concerning these, and the legend of the foundation of the town, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. ii. pp. 213-216.

Muhammadpur.—*Parganá* in Bára Bánki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Sítápur District, on the east by the Chauka river, on the south by Rámnagar *parganá*, and on the west by Sítápur District. Area, 62 square miles, of which 44 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 33,096, viz. 31,191 Hindus and 1905 Musalmáns. Government land revenue, £4070. Of the 83 villages comprising the *parganá*, 46 are held in *tálukdári*, 3 in *zamíndári*, and 34 in *pattidári* tenure. The principal *tálukdár* is Rájá Sarabjit Sinh, who owns 32 villages.

Muhammadpur.—Town in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; situated 24 miles west of Faizábád town, on the road from Milkípur to Rudaulí. Pop. (1869), 2615, viz. 2507 Hindus and 108 Muhammadans.

Muhpa.—Town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces.—*See* MOHPA.

Mujnái.—River of Jalpáiguri District, Bengal; rises in the southern

slope of the Bhután Hills, and flows in a winding southerly direction into Kuch Behar. Its chief tributaries in Jalpáiguri District are the Títi, Angorijhora, Dábdhub, Bírpíti, Halong. In Kuch Behar, the Mujnái falls into the Jaldhaka, in lat. 26° 26′ 30″ N., and long. 89° 14′ 15″ E., after that river has joined the Dharla or Torsha.

Mujpur.—One of the petty States of Jhaláwár, in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of one village, with 3 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue in 1876, £322; tribute of £60 is paid to the British Government.

Mukámá (*Mokameh*).—Town in Patná District, Bengal; situated on the right bank of the Ganges, in lat. 25° 24′ 25″ N., and long. 85° 55′ 26″ E. Pop. (1872), 10,715; municipal income (1876-77), £354; rate of taxation, 7¾d. per head of population. Police force, 31 men. A town of recent growth, with a considerable trade in country produce. Mukámá is a station on the East Indian Railway, distant from Calcutta (Howrah) 283 miles by the 'chord' line.

Mukandwára (*Mokundurra*).—Village in Kotah State, Rájputána; situated in lat. 24° 48′ 50″ N., and long. 76° 4′ 50″ E., on the route from Nímach to Kotah, 90 miles north-east of the former and 32 south-west of the latter. It lies in a long and narrow valley, formed by two ridges of hills running north-west and south-east between the Chambal and the Kálí Sind rivers. The Mukandra Pass (the *dwára* or pass of Krishna), situated to the south-west of Kotah, is of great importance, as being the only defile practicable for carriages for a considerable distance between the two rivers just named. This pass is the scene of endless legends of the valiant Khichi and Hara clans of Rájputs. Amongst the nobles of Kotah, the office of *Ghâta-Ráwat*, or 'Lord of the Pass,' was a coveted honour. This pass is famous in British Indian history as the route of Colonel Monson's retreat before Jaswant Ráo Holkar in July 1804.

Mukerián.—Small town in Hushiárpur District, Punjab. Lat. 31° 56′ 50″ N., long. 75° 38′ 50″ E.; pop. (1868), 4776. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £208.

Mukimpur.—Town in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh.—*See* SHAHGANJ.

Muktsár.—*Tahsíl* in Firozpur District, Punjab, lying between 30° 8′ and 30° 45′ 30″ N. lat., and between 74° 17′ 15″ and 74° 54′ 30″ E. long. Area, 916 square miles; pop. (1868), 94,837; persons per square mile, 104; number of villages, 354.

Muktsár.—Small trading town in Firozpur (Ferozepore) District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name. Lat. 30° 28′ 30″ N., long. 74° 33′ 15″ E.; pop. (1868), 4694. Principal mart for the western portion of the District. Chiefly noticeable for a great Síkh festival, which takes place in January; lasts for three days, and

commemorates a battle fought in 1705-06 by Guru Har Govind against the pursuing Imperialist forces. Large tank, in which pilgrims bathe; commenced by Ranjít Sinh, continued by the Mahárájá of Patiála, and now in course of completion by the British Government. A horse and cattle fair is held at the same time with the religious meeting. *Tahsíli*, police station, distillery, *sarái.* Municipal income (1875-76), £101.

Mú-kyí (*Moo-kyee*). — Revenue circle in the Martaban township, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Near the Martaban Hills in the west the country is liable to floods after heavy rains; the rest of the circle is tolerably fertile. There are some hot salt springs which occasionally overflow and damage the surrounding land. Water communication to Maulmain all the year round. Pop. (1877), 4080; land revenue, £1660, and capitation tax, £418.

Múl.—Hill range in Chánda District, Central Provinces, 3 miles west of the town of Múl; extending 18 miles north and south, and 13 east and west; covered with forests, which contain many large *bijesál* trees, and, under the southern slopes, abundance of young teak. The numerous perennial streams along the foot dot the forest with patches of sugar-cane. The valleys of Dhoní and Jhirí on the south, and Kholsá on the west, were once immense artificial lakes, with large trading villages on the hill slopes. Now only a few Gond huts occupy the former bed of the water. In the driest weather, the grass in these valleys is brilliantly green, and their streams bright and limpid; but the spring water of the Dhoní valley should be boiled before it is used. The hills produce a kind of snowdrop, of which the Gonds eat the leaves. Under the southern slope is a large excavation where the Gond hunters entrapped the elephants which formerly abounded.

Múl.—Southern *tahsíl* or Subdivision of Chánda District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 191,743, residing in 829 villages or townships and in 39,155 houses; area, 5098 square miles.

Múl.—Town in Chánda District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 4′ N., and long. 79° 43′ E., 30 miles north-east of Chánda. Three-fourths of the population are Telingas. Chief manufactures, coloured cotton cloth, and native shoes and sandals. Rice and sugar-cane are grown in the neighbourhood. A *tahsíldár* is stationed at Múl; which contains a town school for boys, girls' school, police station-house, and post office. In the neighbourhood is a nursery for young trees.

Mula (*Muloh;* also called the *Gandáva Pass*).—Pass over the Brahuik range, by which access is gained from Kachh Gandáva to the tableland of Jhalawán in Baluchistán. It has three entrances—(1) at Pír Chatta, 9 miles from Kotri; (2) the Taphoi entrance, leading from Jhal, 9 miles south of Kotri; and (3) the Gatti entrance, a very difficult road. The halting places are—Kuhau, 12 miles from Pír Chatta (elevation, 1250 feet); Hatáchi, 16 miles; Nar (2850), 16 miles;

Peshtar Khán (3500 feet), 12 miles; Patki (4250 feet), $10\frac{1}{2}$ miles; Pisi Bent (4600), 12 miles; Bapau (5000 feet), 12 miles. Twelve miles farther on to the source of the Mula stream; and near the village of Angira, the top of the pass is reached at an elevation of 5250 feet above sea level.

The Mula Pass is thus in all about 102 miles in length from its entrance in the low country to the source of the river, the average rise being about 45 feet in the mile. It is considered, on the whole, to be preferable as a military pass to the Bolán, the road being better, the ascent easier and more gradual, and some supplies, at least, being obtainable in it. At the close of 1839, General Willshire's force, after storming Khelát, returned to Sind by this route; but the guns brought down on that occasion were only light field-pieces. Masson, who traversed this pass, remarks that in a military point of view the route, presenting a succession of open spaces, connected by narrow passages or defiles, is very defensible, at the same time affording convenient spots for encampment, an abundance of excellent water, fuel, and more or less forage. It is level throughout, the road either following the bed of the stream or running near its left bank. It is not only easy and safe, but may be travelled at all seasons, and is the only camel route through the hills intermediate between Sarawán and Jhalawán and Kachhi from the latitude of Shál (where the line of intercourse is by the route of the Bolán river) to Khozdár, from which a road leads into Middle Sind. Danger from predatory bands is not even to be apprehended; and in this respect alone it has an immense advantage over the Bolán Pass. Dr. Bellew, who passed in 1872 over but a portion of it leading to Khozdár, says that in a distance of about 50 miles, extending from Pír Chatta to Gaz, it presents a succession of basins, connected by narrow straits that are very crooked. The basins are those of Pír Chatta, Kuhau, Pání-wat, Jah, Hatáchi, Fazzan, Pír Lakka, Hassna, and Nar. Each of these is more or less cultivated, contains abundant water and fuel, but very little or no pasture, and limited camping surface. The rainy season is in July and August. During these months, violent storms occur on the mountains, and the pass often becomes suddenly flooded by swift torrents that sweep all before them.

Mulágúl (or *Molághúl*). — Village and police station in Sylhet District, Assam; on the right or north bank of the Surmá river, near the confluence of the Lubá. The weekly *bázár* is largely attended by traders from the Khási and Jáintia Hills. Mulágúl has given its name to a *mahál* or reserve for elephant-hunting.

Múlanúr.—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras. Lat. 10° 45′ 30″ N., long. 77° 46′ E.; pop. (1871), 6950; number of houses, 1830.

Mulbágal.—*Táluk* in Kolár District, Mysore. Area, 241 square

miles, of which 108 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 58,051, of whom 55,563 are Hindus, 2405 Muhammadans, and 83 Christians; land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £9213, or 2s. 9d. per cultivated acre. The rice and the sugar-cane are of fine quality.

Mulbágal (or *Múdla-bágalu*—literally, 'Eastern Gate,' so called from commanding the pass from the tableland of Mysore to the temple of Tripati).—Municipal town in Kolár District, Mysore; 18 miles east-north-east of Kolár town; headquarters of the *táluk* of the same name. Lat. 13° 9′ 40″ N., long. 78° 26′ 30″ E.; pop. (1871), 4706, of whom 3527 are Hindus, 1176 Muhammadans, and 3 Christians; municipal revenue (1874-75), £92; rate of taxation, 4¾d. per head. An ancient town, having been the seat of government under the Vijáyanagar dynasty. Some old temples exist in the neighbourhood; and the tomb of a Musalmán saint annually attracts many pilgrims on the anniversary of his death. All Hindu pilgrims to Tripati (Tripatty) from the west must pass through Mulbágal, where they are required to undergo a ceremony of purification.

Mulgund.—Town in Dhárwár District, Bombay; situated 38 miles east-south-east of the town of Dhárwár, in lat. 15° 17′ N., and long. 75° 36′ E. Pop. (1872), 6844. Post office.

Mulí.—Native State within the British Political Agency of Káthiáwár, in the Province of Guzerat, Bombay, lying between 22° 33′ 45″ and 22° 46′ 45″ N. lat., and between 71° 25′ and 71° 38′ 15″ E. long. Pop. (1872), 17,681; number of villages, 19. The country is generally flat, with low rocky ridges; the climate is hot and dry. The usual grains and cotton are grown. The nearest port is Dholera. Mulí is officially ranked as a 'fourth-class' State, and is the only Pramara chiefship in Káthiáwár. Though there is one nominal head or Thákur, the State is divided among a number of sharers of almost equal influence, by whom the usual engagements have been executed. The present (1876-77) chief is Pramara Sartansinhjí, a Hindu of the ancient Rájput clan called Pramara. He is forty-two years old, and administers the State in person. He enjoys an estimated gross yearly revenue of £10,000, and pays a tribute of £935 jointly to the British Government and to the Nawáb of Junágarh. There are 4 schools in the State, with a total attendance of 187 pupils.

Mulí.—Chief town of Mulí State, Káthiáwár, Bombay. Lat. 22° 38′ N., long. 71° 30′ E.; pop. (1872), 5112.

Mulila Deri.—One of the petty States of Hallár, in Káthiáwár, Bombay; consisting of 6 villages, with 2 independent tribute-payers. Estimated revenue (1876), £1400, from which tribute of £127 is paid to the British Government and £17 to the Nawáb of Junágarh.

Mulki.—Town in South Kanara District, Madras; situated in lat. 13° 5′ 15″ N., and long. 74° 49′ 35″ E., on an inlet of the sea, 15 miles

north of Mangalore. The water is too shallow to admit large vessels, but small fishing and coasting craft find shelter here. Opposite the mouth of the inlet is a group of islets known as the Mulki or Premeira Rocks.

Mullama Konda.—Mountain in Cuddapah District, Madras.—*See* HORSLEY KONDA.

Múltái.—Southern *tahsíl* or Subdivision in Betúl District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 87,101, residing in 305 villages or townships and in 15,753 houses; area, 959 square miles.

Múltái.—Town in Betúl District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 21° 46′ 26″ N., and long. 78° 18′ 5″ E., 28 miles east of Bednúr. Pop. (1872), 3371. The large tank, ornamented with several temples, is reverenced by Hindus as the source of the river Taptí. Múltái has a *tahsíl* court-house and police station, a Government school and a charitable dispensary; and does some trade in the opium and unrefined sugar produced in the neighbourhood. The English burial-ground is now disused.

Múltán (*Mooltan*).—Division under a Commissioner in the Punjab, lying between 29° 1′ and 32° 4′ N. lat., and between 70° 33′ and 74° 10′ 30″ E. long., and comprising the 4 Districts of MULTAN, JHANG, MONTGOMERY, and MUZAFFARGARH, each of which see separately. Area of Multán Division, according to Parliamentary Abstract 1878, 20,156 square miles; pop. (1868), 1,474,574 persons.

Múltán (*Mooltan*).—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 29° 22′ and 30° 45′ N. lat., and between 71° 4′ and 72° 54′ 30″ E. long. Area in 1868, 5881 square miles; population in the same year, 471,563 persons. The Parliamentary Abstract for 1878 returns the area at 5927 square miles. Múltán forms the south-eastern District of the Division of the same name. It is bounded on the south by the river Sutlej (Satlaj); on the north-west by the river Chenáb; on the north by the river Rávi and Jhang District; and on the east by the District of Montgomery. The administrative headquarters are at the city of MULTAN.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Múltán consists of an obtuse wedge of land, enclosed by the confluent streams of the Chenáb and the Sutlej, whose waters unite at its south-western extremity. The irregular triangle thus cut off lies wholly within the Bári Doáb, but the District boundaries have been artificially prolonged across the Rávi in the north, so as to include a portion also of the Rechna Doáb. The past or present courses of four of the great rivers of the Punjab determine the conformation of the Múltán plateau. At present, the Sutlej forms its southern and the Chenáb its north-western boundary, while the Rávi intersects its extreme northern angle. Along the banks of these three modern streams extend fringes of cultivation, varying in

width from 3 to 20 miles; but the interior uplands present the usual barren appearance of the Punjab tableland. Mid-way between the boundary rivers, a high dorsal ridge enters this District from MONTGOMERY, forming a part of the sterile region known as the *bár*. It dips into the lower plateau on either side by abrupt banks, which mark the ancient beds of the Rávi and the Beas (Biás). These two rivers once flowed for a much greater distance southward before joining the Chenáb and the Sutlej than is now the case; and their original course may still be distinctly traced, not only by the signs of former fluvial action, but also by the existence of dried-up canals. The Rávi still clings to its ancient water-course, as observed by General Cunningham, and in all seasons of high flood finds its way as far as Múltán by the abandoned bed. When the District was thus abundantly intersected by four mighty rivers, the whole wedge of land, except the dorsal belt of the *bár*, was open to irrigation from one or other of their streams. Numerous villages then dotted its whole surface; and Al Mazudi, in the 10th century, describes Múltán, with oriental exaggeration, as surrounded by 120,000 hamlets. At the present day, the Beas (Biás) is totally lost to the District; the Rávi merely waters a small corner; and the only rich cultivation is that which stretches along the Chenáb and the Sutlej. Elsewhere, a wild jungle of brushwood covers the soil, which, though naturally good, requires abundant irrigation to bring it under efficient tillage. Numerous canals supply water from the Sutlej to the surrounding country. Pools or *jhíls* collect during the rainy weather in the hollows formed by the old water-courses, and are utilized by embankments and artificial channels for fertilizing the neighbouring fields.

History.—The city now known as Múltán probably bore in the earliest times the name of Kasyapapura, derived from Kasyapa, father of the Adityas and Daityas, the Sun-gods and Titans of Hindu mythology. Under various Hellenic forms of this ancient designation, Múltán figures in the works of Hecatæus, Herodotus, and Ptolemy. General Cunningham believes that the Kaspeiræa of the last-named author, being the capital of the Kaspeiræi, whose dominions extended from Kashmír (Cashmere) to Muttra, must have been the principal city in the Punjab towards the 2nd century of our era. Five hundred years earlier, Múltán appears in the history of Alexander's invasion as the chief seat of the Malli, whom the Macedonian conqueror utterly subdued after a desperate resistance. He left Philip as Satrap at Múltán itself; but it seems probable that the Hellenic power in this distant quarter soon came to an end, as the country appears shortly after to have passed under the rule of the Gupta dynasty of Magadha. At a later period, Greek influence may once more have extended to Múltán under the Bactrian kings, whose coins are occasionally found in the District. The early Arab geographers mention Múltán as form-

ing part of the kingdom of Sind, ruled over by the famous Rájá Chach. During his reign, the well-known Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, Hiouen Thsang, visited Múltán, where he found a golden image of the sun, from which General Cunningham derives the modern name of the city, though other authorities connect it rather with that of the Malli. Sind early fell a prey to the aggressive Muhammadan power, and this District, like the rest of the kingdom, was conquered for the Kalifate by Muhammad Kásim. During the decline of the Kalifs, their influence naturally grew weak in the remote Province of Sind; and about the close of the 9th century, two independent kingdoms sprang up, with their capitals at Mansura and Múltán. A native Arab dynasty of Amírs continued to reign over the country about the junction of the Chenáb and the Sutlej, until the rise of the Ghazní Empire. In 1005, Sultán Mahmúd laid siege to the city, and having conquered it, with the whole of Sind, continued thereafter to appoint the governors. After passing for a time under the dynasties of Sumra and Ghor, the District regained a brief independence in 1442, under one Sháikh Yusaf, an officer appointed by the people themselves. But when the Mughal princes consolidated the whole of Upper India into a single Empire, Múltán passed under their wider sway; and it remained the capital of one of their *subás* till the imperial organization fell to pieces. On Nádir Sháh's invasion in 1738-39, Zahíd Khán, a Sadozái Afghán, was appointed by Muhammad Sháh to be Nawáb of Múltán. He founded a family which long continued to rule in the Bári Doáb, in spite of frequent interruptions by Marhattás and Afgháns. The history of the District during the latter half of the 18th century, comprises the usual tangled details of Síkh and Muhammadan dynastic revolutions and internal warfare. At length, in 1779, Muzaffar Khán, one of the Sadozái family, succeeded in obtaining the governorship of Múltán. Though constantly harassed by the Bhangi Síkhs, he managed to develop considerably the resources of his Province. Ranjít Sinh several times attacked his capital, but was compelled to retire. At length, in 1818, the Síkhs conquered the city, after a long siege, by a desperate assault, and put to death Muzaffar Khán with five of his sons. After passing rapidly through the hands of two or three Síkh governors, Múltán was made over in 1829 to the famous Sáwan Mall, together with the modern Districts of Derá Ismáil Khán, Derá Ghází Khán, Muzaffargarh, and Jhang. The whole country had almost assumed the aspect of a desert from frequent warfare and spoliation; but Diwán Sáwan Mall induced new inhabitants to settle in his Province, excavated numerous canals, favoured commerce, and restored prosperity to the desolated tract. After the death of Ranjít Sinh, however, quarrels took place between the Diwán and the Kashmír Rájá; and on the 11th of September 1844, he was fatally shot in the breast by a soldier. His son Múlráj suc-

ceeded to his governorship, and also to his quarrel with the authorities at Lahore. Their constant exactions at last induced him to tender his resignation. After the establishment of the Council of Regency at Lahore, difficulties arose between the Diwán Múlráj and the British officials, which finally led to the Múltán rebellion. That episode belongs rather to imperial than to local history. It ended in the capture of Múltán and the annexation of the Punjab by the British. The city offered a resolute defence, but, being stormed on 2d January 1849, fell after severe fighting; and Múlráj surrendered at discretion. He was put upon his trial for the murder of our officials, and, being found guilty, was sentenced to death; but this penalty was afterwards commuted for that of transportation. The District at once passed under direct British rule.

Population.—The first regular Census in 1854 returned the number of inhabitants at 411,386. That of 1868 showed an increase of 60,177 persons, or 14·6 per cent. The latter enumeration extended over an area of 5881 square miles, and disclosed a total population of 471,563 persons, inhabiting 1211 villages or townships, and distributed among 111,794 houses. From these data the following averages may be calculated:—Persons per square mile, 80·17; villages per square mile, 0·20; houses per square mile, 19·01; persons per village, 389; persons per house, 4·22. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 261,403; females, 210,160; proportion of males, 55·43 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—males, 89,609, females, 72,580; total children, 162,189, or 34·39 per cent. of the population. As regards religious distinctions, the Hindus numbered 87,009, or 18·45 per cent.; Muhammadans, 360,188, or 76·38 per cent.; Síkhs, 909, or 0·19 per cent.; and 'others,' 23,457, or 4·97 per cent. Among the Hindus and Síkhs, the Aroras form by far the largest tribe, being returned at 61,695 souls; the other chief castes were Bráhmans, 3616, and Kshattriyas, 6005. The Muhammadans comprised 7608 Sayyids, 3845 Patháns, 12,544 Baluchis, and 19,649 Rájputs. The vernacular language is a dialect known as Múltáni, differing but little from the ordinary Panjábi. Three towns have a population exceeding 5000 persons—namely, MULTAN, 56,382; SHUJABAD, 6095; and KAHRUR, 5069. These figures show a total urban population of 67,546, being 14·32 per cent. of the whole number of inhabitants. Most of the people are grouped together in villages on the irrigated lowlands, and only a scattered nomad population is found upon the *bár*. Numerous ruins occur throughout the District. Those at ATARI have been identified by General Cunningham with the 'City of the Brachmans,' taken by Alexander during his invasion of India.

Agriculture.—The returns of 1873-74 state the total area under assessment for land revenue at 3,793,280 acres. Of this area, 2,291,559

acres, or 60·41 per cent., consists of uncultivable waste; while of the remainder, less than one-half has actually come under tillage, 777,081 acres of cultivable land being unreclaimed at that date. Cultivation, however, has steadily though not rapidly increased since the British annexation. The character of the agriculture remains slovenly, as the Ját tribes who compose the mass of the rural population have not yet lost their predatory and pastoral propensities. Only where Hindu capitalists of the Arora, Kshattriya, or Bania castes have obtained a hold upon the soil, does the husbandry reach even the ordinary standard of the Punjab plains. Ill-ploughed land, seldom manured, sown with seed broadcast, and producing thin or irregular crops, shows a marked contrast to the fertility which might naturally be expected in a District where means of irrigation exist so abundantly. Near the city, however, capitalist farmers have brought their estates to a high state of cultivation. Agricultural staples covered the following areas in 1873-74:—*Rabí* or spring harvest—wheat, 171,830 acres; barley, 10,985 acres; gram, 6140 acres; pulses, 33,569 acres; tobacco, 1880 acres: *Kharíf* or autumn harvest—rice, 9817 acres; millets, 73,358 acres; oil-seeds, 6894 acres; cotton, 19,484 acres; indigo, 39,576 acres; and sugar-cane, 3340 acres. Of these, indigo forms the most important commercial staple, its cultivation having been largely encouraged by the Diwán Sáwan Mall, and later, by the British Government. The average produce per acre of the various crops was returned as follows in 1873:—Rice, 690 lbs.; indigo, 29 lbs.; cotton, 84 lbs.; wheat, 784 lbs.; inferior grains, 390 lbs. Irrigation extends over 192,733 acres from Government works, and over 347,924 acres supplied by private enterprise. Rents are almost universally paid in kind. Unskilled labourers obtained in 1873-74 from 3d. to 6d. per diem; skilled labourers from 9d. to 1s. 3d. Prices of food grains ruled as follows during the same year:—Wheat, 19 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 11d. per cwt.; barley, 24 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 8d. per cwt.; grain, 17 *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 7d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 28 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The city of Múltán forms the great commercial centre of the District, but there are also *bázárs* at Shújábád, Kahrúr, Sarái Sidhu, Tulamba, Lodhrán, Jalálpur, and other smaller towns. Thence the surplus produce of the District finds its way to the markets of Múltán. The chief articles of trade are sugar and indigo from the lowlands, and wool and *ghí* from the pasture lands of the *bár*. Silk and fine cotton fabrics are produced at Múltán; coarse cotton cloth for home consumption is woven in every village. Indigo is also largely manufactured from the raw material. The Múltán branch of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, opened in 1864, connects the city with the northern Punjab, and has its terminus at Sher Sháh upon the Chenáb. The Indus Valley State Railway, opened for

traffic in 1878, runs through part of the District in the direction of Baháwalpur. The Government telegraph line from Lahore to Karáchi (Kurrachee) passes through Múltán, and a branch line goes to Derá Ghází Khán. The District contains 1489 miles of roads, of which 59 miles are metalled. None of the rivers are bridged, but there are ferries at all the chief crossings.

Administration.—The District staff ordinarily comprises a Deputy Commissioner, Assistant Commissioner, and two extra-Assistant Commissioners, besides the usual fiscal, constabulary, and medical officers. The total imperial revenue in 1872-73 amounted to £92,042, of which sum the land tax contributed £65,486. The other principal items were salt, customs, and stamps. The total direct income of the 'Lower Sutlej and Chenáb Inundation Canals' Division in 1873-74, amounted to £12,147. A small provincial and local revenue is also raised in the District. During the same year, the number of civil and revenue judges amounted to 19, and that of magistrates to 13. The imperial police force in 1872 consisted of 571 men of all ranks, supplemented by a municipal police of 182 men, and a cantonment constabulary of 45 men. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property numbered 798 policemen, being 1 to every 7·4 square miles of the area and every 590 of the population. The Múltán jail, besides affording accommodation for the criminals of the District, also receives long-term prisoners from other parts of the Division. The total number of inmates in 1872 was 1841, and the daily average 774. Education remains in a very backward state, the Muhammadan population being especially apathetic in this matter. In 1872-73, the children receiving instruction numbered 3062, of whom the Hindus contributed 46 per cent., though they only amount to 18½ per cent. of the whole population. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is divided into 5 *tahsíls*, having their headquarters at Múltán, Shújábád, Lodhrán, Mailsi, and Sarái Sidhu. The 6 municipal towns of MULTAN, SHUJABAD, KHARUR, TULAMBA, JALALPUR, and DANYAPUR had an aggregate revenue, in 1875-76, of £9640, being at the average rate of 2s. 9d. per head of the population (69,202) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Múltán is proverbial, even among the hot and dusty Punjab plains, for its heat and dust. The mean temperature in the shade for the six years ending 1867, read as follows:—January, 54·70° F; June, 95·73°; October, 76·68°. The average annual rainfall for the same six years amounted to 7·273 inches. The official returns for eight years ending 1873-74, give an annual average of only 5·6 inches, with a maximum during that period of 9·1 inches in 1869-70. The total number of deaths reported in 1872 was 11,216, being at the rate of 24 per thousand. Of these, 6216 were assigned

to fevers, and 2022 to small-pox. The District contains 4 Government charitable dispensaries, which afforded relief in 1872 to 18,886 persons, of whom 1211 were in-patients.

Múltán.—*Tahsíl* in Múltán District, Punjab, stretching from the bank of the Chenáb. Area, 939 square miles; pop. (1868), 138,272; persons per square mile, 147.

Múltán (*Mooltan*).—Municipal city and administrative headquarters of Múltán District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 45,602, consisting of 19,812 Hindus, 24,828 Muhammadans, 83 Síkhs, 195 Christians, and 684 'others'; or including the cantonments, a total of 56,382 persons. Situated in lat. 30° 12′ N., and long. 71° 30′ 45″ E., 4 miles from the present left bank of the Chenáb, enclosed on three sides by a wall from 10 to 20 feet in height, but open towards the south, where the dry bed of the old Rávi intervenes between the town and citadel. As late as the days of Timur, the Rávi seems to have flowed past Múltán, joining the Chenáb 10 miles lower down; and the original site consisted of two islands, which are now picturesquely crowned by the city and citadel, at an elevation of some 50 feet above the surrounding country. The fortifications were dismantled in 1854, but the fort still remains a place of considerable strength, occupied by a European garrison. Large and irregular suburbs have grown up outside the wall since the annexation in 1849. Within the city proper, narrow and tortuous streets, often ending in *culs-de-sac*, fill almost the whole space; but one broad *bázár* (constructed by the British immediately after the annexation) runs from end to end. Múltán is a town of great antiquity, being identified with the capital of the Malli, whom Alexander conquered in his invasion of the Punjab; but the history of the city is included in that of MULTAN DISTRICT. The principal buildings include the shrines of the Muhammadan saints, Baha-ud-dín Rukhn-ul-alam, lineal descendants of the Prophet, which stand in the citadel. Close by are the remains of an ancient Hindu temple of the Narsinh Avatár, called Pahládpuri, blown down by the explosion of the powder magazine during the siege of 1849. The great temple of the Sun, from which General Cunningham derives the name of the city, once occupied the very middle of the citadel, but was destroyed during the reign of the zealous Musalmán Emperor Aurangzeb, who erected a Jamá Masjíd or 'cathedral mosque' in its place. This mosque afterwards became the powder magazine of the Síkhs, and was blown up as mentioned above. The civil station contains a court-house and treasury, Commissioner's offices, jail, post office, telegraph office, dispensary, and staging bungalow. The Church Missionary Society maintains a station here. As a trade centre, Múltán ranks of first importance, being connected by rail with Lahore, and by the Rávi, Jhelum (Jhílam), and Chenáb with the whole central Punjab. It there-

fore collects into a focus all the trade of the Province with Karáchi (Kurrachee), and, through Karáchi, with Europe. Large quantities of raw produce are annually shipped by country boats and by the steamers of the Indus flotilla at Sher Sháh, the port of Múltán. The merchants correspond with firms in all parts of the Punjab proper. The trade of Múltán comprises every item of produce, manufacture, and consumption in the whole Province; the chief imports being cotton and other piece-goods; while the main staples of export are sugar, cotton, indigo, and wool. The gross imports from all parts in 1871-72, amounted in value to £1,900,000; and the gross exports to £1,207,000. The manufacture of silk is carried on to a large extent. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £8240, or 3s. 2⅞d. per head of population (50,783) within municipal limits.

Múltán.—Cantonment in Múltán District, Punjab; 1½ mile east of the city. Lat. 30° 11′ 15″ N., long. 71° 28′ E. Pop. (1868), 10,780. Usually occupied by a European regiment of infantry and a battery of artillery, and by two regiments of Native infantry.

Mún (*Moon*).—Revenue circle in Shwe-gyeng District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 290 square miles; pop. (1876), 4630, mostly Burmese; gross revenue (1876-77), £730. There are many fine teak and *pyeng-gado* forests.

Mundlána.—Town in Rohtak District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 5109, consisting of 4903 Hindus and 206 Muhammadans. A large agricultural village rather than a town, possessing no commercial or administrative importance.

Mundra.—Port in the Native State of Cutch (Kachchh), Bombay; situated in lat. 22° 48′ 40″ N., and long. 69° 52′ 30″ E., on the coast of the Gulf of Cutch, 29 miles south of Bhuj, the capital of the State. Pop. (1872), 7952.—(For nautical details, see Taylor's *India Directory*, Part I. p. 343.)

Mungapákam (*Mungapáka*).—Town in Vizagapatam District, Madras; situated in lat. 17° 38′ N., and long. 83° 3′ 30″ E., in the fertile *zamíndárí* (proprietary estate) of the same name. The estate consists of 8 villages, and pays a *peshkash* (revenue) of £2465.

Mungelí.—Western *tahsíl* or Subdivision in Biláspur District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 259,543, residing in 1175 villages or townships and in 67,121 houses; area, 1613 square miles.

Mungelí.—Town in Biláspur District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 22° 4′ N., and long. 81° 44′ E., 36 miles west of Biláspur town. Pop. (1872), 4392. The river Agar winds round three sides of Mungelí, which lies on the direct road from Biláspur to Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), and does an increasing trade. It has a police station-house and a town school, and 2 large markets are held weekly.

Mungír.—District, Subdivision, and town in Bengal.—*See* MONGHYR.

Munír.—Agricultural town in Gházípur District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 5285.

Múnj.—Village and ruins in Etáwah District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 26° 53′ 45″ N., and long. 79° 12′ 1″ E., on a plain 14 miles north-east of Etáwah town. Pop. (1872), 684. Large mound, identified by Mr. Hume with the Múnj taken by Mahmúd of Ghazní in 1017, after a desperate resistance on the part of the Rájput garrison. Local tradition connects the site with the wars of the Pándavas and the Kauravas, chronicled in the *Mahábhárata*, when the Rájá of Múnj and his two sons fought on the side of Rájá Yudhishthira. The position of the great gateway and traces of two bastions are still pointed out. Curious square well, built of sculptured blocks. The mound forms an inexhaustible quarry of ancient bricks, from which the villagers construct their huts.

Munshíganj.—Subdivision of Dacca District, Bengal. Area, 446 square miles, with 650 villages and 59,544 houses. Pop. (1872), 459,874, of whom 224,345, or 48·8 per cent., were Hindus; 234,956, or 51·1 per cent., Muhammadans; 530 Christians; and 43 of other denominations. Proportion of males in total population, 46·5 per cent. Average pressure of population per square mile, 1031; villages per square mile, 1·45; persons per village, 707; houses per square mile, 133; persons per house, 7·7. This Subdivision consists of the 2 police circles of Munshíganj and Srínagar. In 1869, it contained 1 court, a regular police of 88 men, a municipal force of 30, and a village watch of 830 men; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £3996 from District and £206 from municipal funds.

Mún-tsa-lí (*Moon-tsa-lee*).—Revenue circle in the Thayet township and District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 18 square miles, of which more than 14 are uncultivable. Products—rice, maize, sesamum, plantains, and cutch. Pop. (1876-77), 1935; gross revenue, £341.

Munyeru.—River in Kistna District, Madras. One of the large affluents of the Kistna river, rising in the Nizám's Dominions, and joining the main stream about 20 miles above the anicut at Bezwáda.

Murádábád.—District, *tahsíl*, and town in the North-Western Provinces.—*See* MORADABAD.

Murádábád.—Town in Partábgarh (Pratápgarh) District, Oudh; situated 46 miles from Belá, the civil station, and 19 from Safipur, on the Hardoi road. Said to have been founded about 300 years ago by Murád Sher Khán, after whom the place is named. Pop. (1869), 4901, viz. 3534 Hindus and 1367 Musalmáns, residing in 50 brick and 930 mud houses. Bi-weekly market, and 3 annual religious fairs; vernacular school.

Murádnagar.—Village in Meerut (Mírath) District, North-Western Provinces. Pop. (1872), 4769. Distant from Meerut town 18 miles

south-west. Founded 300 years ago by Mírzá Muhammad Murád Mughal, whose mausoleum still exists. Large *sarái* built by founder; school, police station, post office.

Murarái.—Village in Murshidábád District, Bengal; from which the greater part of the *áman* rice crop, almost exclusively produced in the Rárh or western half of the District, is exported to Calcutta. Lat. 24° 27′ 15″ N., long. 87° 54′ E. Murarái is a station on the East Indian Railway, distant from Calcutta (Howrah) 155 miles.

Murassapur.—Town in Partábgarh (Pratápgarh) District, Oudh; 4 miles from Mánikpur, on the road from that place to Rái Bareli. Pop. (1869), 5427, viz. 4303 Hindus and 1124 Musalmáns. Adjoining this village is the *bázár* of Nawábganj, a flourishing grain mart, the annual sales at which amount to an average of £4400. Large fair on the occasion of the *Dasahara* festival, attended by about 30,000 people. Cotton-printing is carried on to a considerable extent.

Murdeswar.—Port in North Kanara District, Bombay; situated in lat. 14° 6′ N., and long. 74° 36′ E., 13 miles south of Honáwár. Annual average value of trade during the five years ending 1873-74—imports, £1991; exports, £1731.

Murgod.—Town in Belgáum District, Bombay; situated 27 miles east of the town of Belgáum, in lat. 15° 53′ 35″ N., and long. 74° 58′ 10″ E. Pop. (1872), 7181. Murgod is a considerable market for cotton and grain, and a small business is done in printing coarse cloth. A fair is held annually, attended by upwards of 3000 people. Post office.

Murliganj.—Town in Bhágalpur District, Bengal; situated 12 miles east of Madahpura, on the Dáús river, which has now become the main channel of the Kúsi. Large *bázár*. Near the village are numerous *gháts* or landing-places, used at different times of the year for the purposes of trade, according to the height of water in the river. Imports—Liverpool salt, spices, sugar, iron, and fine rice; exports—paddy, oil-seed, a little cotton, and coarse saltpetre. Pop. (1872), 1287.

Murree (*Marri*).—Eastern *tahsíl* of Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab, lying between 33° 41′ 30″ and 34° 5′ 15″ N. lat., and between 73° 15′ and 73° 38′ E. long., and comprising the forest-clad range of hills on which the sanitarium of MURREE is built. The chain consists of a series of sandstone spurs, culminating in peaks some 8000 feet above sea level, and stretching onward into Hazára, till they finally blend with the snowy ranges which enclose the Kashmír (Cashmere) valley.

Murree (*Marri*).—Sanitarium and hill station in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab, and headquarters of the *tahsíl* of the same name. Lat. 33° 54′ 30″ N., long. 73° 26′ 30″ E.; pop. (1868), 2346, but largely increased by influx of visitors during the season. Situated on a ridge of the MURREE HILLS, 7507 feet above sea level. Forms the great northern

sanitarium for the Punjab, and the ordinary summer resort of the local Government. The site was selected in 1850, almost immediately after the annexation of the Province, and building operations commenced at once. In 1851, temporary accommodation was provided for a detachment of troops; and in 1853, permanent barracks were erected. The station grew rapidly in size and population, and now attracts large numbers of visitors from Lahore, Ráwal Pindi, Peshávar, and the plains generally. A road, passable throughout by wheeled conveyances, connects the sanitarium with Ráwal Pindi, distant about five hours' journey. The houses crown the summit and sides of an irregular ridge, commanding magnificent views over forest-clad hill-sides, into deep valleys studded with villages and cultivated fields, with the snow-covered peaks of the Kashmír ranges as a continual background. Broad and easy roads intersect the station, but become almost impassable in rainy weather. The climate is admirably adapted to the constitution of Englishmen. The lowest recorded temperature is 21° F., the highest, 96°. Earthquakes occur annually. Epidemic cholera has twice appeared: in 1858, it committed great ravages among the men of the European depôt; in 1867, it attacked the native population and visitors. Commissioner's, Assistant Commissioner's, and *tahsíldár's* court; Government Secretariat; post and telegraph offices; branch treasury; charitable dispensary; five hotels, three kept by Europeans. Churches of the Anglican, Presbyterian, and Roman Catholic denominations. English and Pársí shops; branch of Punjab Bank; Club; Lawrence Memorial Asylum, for the education of sons and daughters of European soldiers. School for children of residents is transferred to Ráwal Pindi during the cold weather. Brewery established in 1860, the property of an English company, does an extensive business. Brisk imports of food-stuffs during the summer months from Ráwal Pindi and Hazára. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £1829, or 3s. $5\frac{3}{8}$d. per head of population (10,601) within municipal limits. During the height of the season, the population probably amounts to twelve or fourteen thousand.

Murree Hills. — Range in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab, taking their name from the sanitarium which crowns one of their principal ridges; situated between 33° 53′ 30″ and 33° 54′ 30″ N. lat., and between 73° 25′ 15″ and 73° 26′ 30″ E. long. They form a series of lateral spurs of the Himálayan system, running down from the main Kashmír (Cashmere) and Hazára chain at right angles towards the plains, with a general direction from north-east to south-west. The loftiest peaks, behind the sanitarium of Murree, attain a height of 8000 feet. Thence they stretch down to the Murree ridge itself, whose highest portion, the Kashmír Point, has an elevation of 7507 feet above sea level. The houses of European residents cover

the space of 3½ miles to Pindi Point, 7266 feet in height. Farther south, the hills change in aspect. The rich and varied scenery of Murree, with its pine-clad mountains, deep glens, and distant glimpses of the snowy range, gives place to a less grand but perhaps more picturesque and romantic country, consisting of angular hills, divided by broader and cultivated valleys, with hamlets perched on projecting spurs or hidden in nooks upon the hillside, while the ruined castles at their summits recall the former greatness of some Ghakkar or Síkh chieftain. Still farther south, the trees yield to brushwood, the hills grow tame and uniform, and at length, near the borders of Jhelum (Jhílam) District, only a narrow line of hills separates the valley of the Jhelum river from the great alluvial plain of the Punjab.

Mursán.—Town in Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 27° 34′ 40″ N., and long. 77° 59′ E., on the Muttra (Mathurá) road, 7 miles west of Háthras (Hattras), and 24 south-west of Alígarh town. Pop. (1872), 5998, consisting of 5009 Hindus and 989 Muhammadans. Residence of a family of Ját Rájás, whose present representative, Rájá Tíkam Sinh, C.S.I., is an honorary magistrate. Fort, dismantled in 1817. Agricultural and rather neglected town. Two schools, police station, post office.

Murshidábád (*Maksudábád* or *Muxadábád*).—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 23° 43′ 15″ and 24° 52′ N. lat., and between 87° 43′ and 88° 47′ E. long. It forms the north-western corner of the Presidency Division, and is bordered along its entire frontier from north to south-east by the main stream of the Ganges, locally known as the Padma. The area was returned in 1874 at 2462·44 square miles; and the population, according to the Census of 1872, numbers 1,353,626 persons. The administrative headquarters are at BARHAMPUR, but MURSHIDABAD CITY is the most populous place in the District.

Physical Aspect.—The District is divided into two nearly equal portions by the river Bhágirathi, the ancient channel of the Ganges, which flows due north and south. The tract to the west, known as the Rárh, forms a continuation of the hard clay and nodular limestone, which extends through the neighbouring District of Bírbhúm from the mountains of Chutiá Nágpur. The general level is high, but interspersed with *bíls* or broad marshes and seamed by hill torrents; at many points the formation terminates in clay cliffs overhanging the Bhágirathi. The staple crop is the *áman* or winter rice. The Bágri, or eastern half, differs in no respect from the ordinary alluvial plains of Eastern Bengal. It lies enclosed within the Ganges, Bhágirathi, and Jalangi rivers, and is also intersected by minor offshoots of the Great River. There are few permanent swamps; but the whole country is low-lying, and liable to annual inundation. The *áus* or early rice is cultivated; and

a second or cold-weather crop is commonly obtained from the rice-fields.

In the north-west of the District, there are a few small detached hillocks, which are said to be of basaltic formation. The river system is constituted by the Ganges, its offshoots and tributaries. The Ganges or Padma forms the eastern boundary of the District along its entire length. Its banks are extremely subject to alluvion and diluvion. The only marts of importance on the Murshidábád side are Bhagwángolá or Alátalí and Dhulián. The offshoots of the Ganges on this bank comprise the Bhágirathi, Bhairab, Siálmári, and Jalangi. The Bhágirathi, which branches off from the parent stream near the police station of Sutí, is far the most important river in Murshidábád. Though now only navigable during half the year, it carries a large trade, and flows past all the ancient and modern sites of interest in the District. Its channel undoubtedly represents the original bed of the Ganges, and also the farthest south-western limit of the Gangetic delta. The Bhágirathi retains the sanctity which the Great River here loses; and until the opening of the railway it formed the main line of communication with Behar and the North-west. On its east or left bank are situated Jangipur, Jiáganj, Murshidábád, Kásimbázár, and Barhampur; on the right bank are to be seen the ruins of Badrihát and Rángámáti. From the west, the Singá joins the Ganges; and the Páglá, Bánsloi, Dwarká, Bráhminí, Mor, and Kuiyá ultimately find their way into the Bhágirathi by numerous inter-connections. The left bank of the Bhágirathi is embanked along its entire length. There are no canals in the District.

The History of Murshidábád District centres round the city of the same name, the latest Muhammadan capital of Bengal, and still the residence of the titular Nawáb. In 1704, Murshid Kulí Khán, also known in English histories as Jafar Khán, changed the seat of Government from Dacca to the little town of Maksudábád, where he built a palace, and called the place after his own name. This change was undoubtedly determined by the superior position of the new capital, with reference to the growing wants of the administration. Dacca had served its purpose as a frontier station against the inroads of the Arakan and Portuguese pirates; and danger in that quarter was now terminated by the conquest of Chittagong, and the relinquishment of all designs upon the independent kingdom of Assam. The rising importance of the European Settlements on the Húglí, together with the growth of commerce and manufacture at Kásimbázár, were sufficient reasons to determine a wise ruler to post himself permanently on the main line of communication between the upper Ganges valley and the sea, at a spot which was also the most central in his wide dominions. And Murshid Kulí Khán, by birth a Bráhman, by education a courtier, was one of the most able administrators that ever served

the Mughal Empire in time of peace. Only second to the Nawáb in establishing the importance of Murshidábád, was the Jain banker, Mánik Chánd Jagat Seth, by whose predominating influence as a financier the residence of the Governor became also the centre of the revenue collections for the three Provinces of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa.

The dynasty founded by Murshid Kulí Khán did not continue in the direct line beyond two generations; but when Alí Vardí Khán won the throne by conquest in 1740, he found Murshidábád to be most conveniently situated for maintaining his hold upon the rebellious Province of Orissa, and subsequently for keeping the plundering Marhattá horsemen behind the frontier of the Bhágirathi river. During these troublous times, the city itself never suffered either from domestic or foreign war. Each successive prince, after the Eastern fashion, built for himself one or more new palaces; and the great family of Jagat Seth preserved their position as State bankers from generation to generation. On entering Murshidábád after the victory of Plassey, Colonel Clive wrote:—'This city is as extensive, populous, and rich as the city of London, with this difference, that there are individuals in the first possessing infinitely greater property than in the last city. . . . The inhabitants, if inclined to destroy the Europeans, might have done so with sticks and stones.'

Even after the conquest of Bengal by the British, Murshidábád remained for some time the seat of administration. Plassey was fought in 1759, just beyond the present southern limits of Murshidábád District; but that battle was not regarded at the time as interfering with Muhammadan independence beyond the substitution of a subservient Nawáb for the savage Siráj-ud-daulá. The only apparent result was that the commercial Chief of the Factory at Kásimbázár was superseded by a Political Resident to the Darbár, who took up his quarters nearer the city, at Motíjhíl,—'the Pearl Lake,'— in the palace of a former Nawáb. In 1765, the East India Company received the grant of the *díwání* or financial administration of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, from the Mughal Emperor, Sháh Alam, as the prize of the victory at Baxár; and in the following year Lord Clive, as Governor of Bengal, presided in person at the *Punyá* or annual settlement of the revenues. But even on this occasion the young Nawáb sat on the *masnad*, with the Governor on his right hand. The entire work of administration still remained, without any check or supervision, in the hands of the Muhammadan officials; and Jagat Seth continued to be the State banker. The first great reform was effected in 1772 by Warren Hastings, who removed the Supreme Civil and Criminal Courts from Murshidábád to Calcutta. After an experience of three years, the tribunal of criminal justice was re-transferred to Murshidábád; and it was not till 1790, under Lord Cornwallis, that both the entire revenue

and judicial staff was ultimately fixed at the present capital of India. The Mint, the recognised emblem of metropolitan pre-eminence in the East, was abolished in 1799. About the same date, the civil headquarters of the District were transferred to Barhampur, which had been from the first the site of the military cantonments. Murshidábád city was thus left only as the residence of the Nawáb, a descendant of Mír Jafar, who still retains certain marks of sovereignty within his palace, and receives a pension of £160,000 a year. The present holder of the title is now resident in England.

The importance of the District of Murshidábád declined with the decay of its chief city. When a Collector was first appointed to the charge in 1772, its area extended over the neighbouring *zamíndárís* of Bírbhúm and Bishnupur. These outlying tracts had always been noted for lawlessness; and for the better administration of justice they were finally severed from Murshidábád in 1787. The District was thus reduced to very much its present size; but the irregularity of the western boundary line, which marches with Bírbhúm, has been a constant source of perplexity to the local officials. The historical interest attaching to the ruins of KASIMBAZAR, and to BARHAMPUR, which has now ceased to be an important military station, has been explained under those headings. In 1875, the District of Murshidábád was transferred from the Division or Commissionership of Rájsháhí to the Presidency Division.

People.—Early estimates of the population, ranging from 1801 to 1852, which were based upon no trustworthy data, uniformly returned the inhabitants of the District at about one million. The Census of 1872 ascertained the real number to be 1,353,626 persons, residing in 3753 *mauzás* or villages and in 303,561 houses. The area of the District was taken at 2578 square miles, which gives the following averages:—Persons per mile, 525; villages per square mile, 1·46; houses per square mile, 118. The average number of persons per village is 361; persons per house, 4·5. Classified according to sex, there are 645,335 males and 708,291 females; proportion of males, 47·67 per cent. Classified according to age, there are, under 12 years, 236,720 males and 198,142 females; total children, 434,862, or 32·1 per cent. of the population. The occupation returns are not trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that the total number of male adults connected with agriculture is returned at 183,234, as against 225,381 male adult non-agriculturists. The ethnical division of the people shows:—199 Europeans; 111 Eurasians; 107 Afgháns and 1 Armenian; 35,318 aborigines; 198,820 semi-Hinduized aborigines; 493,731 Hindus subdivided according to caste; 21,880 persons of Hindu origin not recognising caste; 603,548 Muhammadans; 2 Burmese. The general character of the population is of a mixed order. Bengalís of the delta,

hill tribes from Chutiá Nágpur, and the peculiar Hindu castes of Behar are all represented; while the presence of the court has introduced Rájputs from the North-West for military service or trade, Afgháns and Persians from beyond the frontier, and a body-guard of Habshís from the east coast of Africa. Among aboriginal tribes, the Nats—a race of vagrant gipsies—are returned as numbering 18,712, more than half the total of this tribe to be found in all Bengal; the Santáls, 10,002; the Uráons, 6131. The Máls, numbering 29,281, are plausibly identified with the Paháriá Máls of the Rájmahál Hills. Of Hindu castes proper, the Bráhmans number 38,749, the Rájputs 13,141. By far the most numerous caste is the Kaibartta, 102,517 in number; next comes the Goálá, 39,953. The Hindustánís are returned at 680. Classified according to religion, the population is composed of—Hindus, 733,056, or 54·2 per cent.; Musalmáns, 603,564, or 44·6 per cent.; 'others,' 16,469, or 1·2 per cent. The native Christians number 226. Among the Hindus are included the Vaishnavs, numbering 21,464; the Jains, who are especially influential at the trading centres of Azímganj and Jiáganj; the Bráhma Samáj, which has a regular meeting-house at Barhampur; and other minor sects. It was one of the surprises revealed by the Census, that the Muhammadans form the minority of the population of the District. Even in the city and suburbs of Murshidábád city, they are outnumbered by the Hindus; and they predominate only in the agricultural tracts towards the south-east.

For a Bengal District, Murshidábád District contains a fair share of large towns; but it appears certain that the urban population is not now on the increase. The six following places are returned in the Census of 1872 as each containing a population of more than 5000:—MURSHIDABAD CITY, population, 46,182; BARHAMPUR, 27,110; KANDI or Jamu-Kandi, 12,016; JANGIPUR, 11,361; BELDANGA, 6037; MARGRAM, 5766. The two latest are mere aggregates of rural villages. Other places of some importance are—the river marts of JIAGANJ and AZIMGANJ, situated opposite one another on the Bhágirathi; BHAGWANGOLA (Old and New) and DHULIAN on the Ganges; the railway stations of MURARAI and NALHATI. At the village of BELIA NARAYANPUR, near the Bírbhúm frontier, are considerable ironworks. Sites of historical interest include KASIMBAZAR, with the neighbouring ruins at Kálkapur and Saidábád; BADRIHAT or Ghiásábád, RANGAMATI, and the battle-field of GHERIA.

Agriculture.—Rice constitutes the staple crop throughout the District; the *áman* or late rice being prevalent in the western half, and the *áus* or early rice in the eastern. To this latter tract also are mainly confined the second or cold-weather crops, consisting of wheat, barley, and many varieties of oil-seeds and pulses. It is estimated that

these latter crops nowhere form more than 10 per cent. of the food supply, and in some parts only 3 per cent. Jute is but little grown; and the cultivation both of indigo and mulberry for silk-worms is on the decline. The area now under mulberry is estimated at about 17,000 acres. The use of manure and the practice of irrigation are limited to the Rárh or western half of the District. Water is conducted over the fields from tanks or natural water-courses. Wells and artificial canals do not exist. Very little spare land remains that has not been brought under the plough. It is estimated that the average produce of an acre of land varies from 13 to 33 cwts., according as it produces one or two crops; the value is put at from £1, 7s. to £3, 15s. The rates of rent in Murshidábád are low, as compared with neighbouring Districts, nor have they been much enhanced by the effect of recent legislation. They vary exceedingly, according to the position of the field, the quality of the crop grown, and the social status of the cultivator. According to an official return, dated 1872, the rates paid for high lands suitable for *áus* or early rice, range from 1s. 6d. to 7s. 6d. per acre; those paid for low lands suitable for *áman* or late rice, range from 1s. 6d. to £1, 10s. per acre. There is little that is peculiar in the land tenures of the District, beyond the *rámnás* or deer-parks held revenue-free by the Nawáb, and the cultivating tenure known as *utbandí* or *faslí-jamá*, according to which the *rayat* pays rent, not for his entire holding, but only for the land actually cultivated, the amount being determined by the nature of the crop grown, and being paid in kind. The sub-infeudation of estates has been carried out into many stages, their peculiar character and incidents differing in the several *parganás*.

The ordinary rates of wages have risen somewhat of late years, but the price of food appears to have increased in a yet larger ratio. Between 1858 and 1870 the wages of a common coolie are reported to have increased from 6s. to 8s. per month; of an agricultural labourer, from 8s. to 10s., paid partly in kind; of village smiths and carpenters, from 12s. to 16s.; of town artisans, from 13s. to £1 per month. On the other hand, a table giving the prices of common rice during a period of thirty-four years, between 1836 and 1869, shows an average for the first twenty years of 2s. 7d. per cwt., against an average for the last fourteen years of 4s. 1d. per cwt. In 1870, the price of common rice was 4s. 5d. per cwt.; in 1866, the year of dearth, it had risen as high as 18s. 2d.

Murshidábád is not specially liable to flood or drought, and the differing circumstances of the two halves of the country tend to modify the intensity of either calamity. In addition, the means of communication and the activity of local trade are sufficiently ample to prevent a local scarcity from developing into famine. Both in 1866 and 1874, Mur-

shidábád lay on the border-land of distress, but in neither year was a large system of Government relief required. The population mainly depends for its food supply upon the *áman* rice crop; and if the price of rice were to rise in January to 6s. 10d. per cwt., that should be regarded as a sign of approaching scarcity.

Manufactures, etc.—The manufactures of Murshidábád are not in a flourishing state. The winding of silk is still the staple industry, but it has steadily declined since the day when the Company closed their great factory at Jangipur in 1835. At present, sericulture is most common in the south-east of the District, and a considerable quantity of cocoons are imported from neighbouring Districts to be wound off there. There are now 45 filatures under the management of Europeans; and the number of basins, including those belonging to natives, is about 5000, employing 10,000 persons. The out-turn of raw silk is estimated to be 246,000 lbs., worth £168,000 valued at the low price of 14s. per lb. The weaving of silk cloth is also conducted in several villages, the annual production being about 100,000 pieces, valued at £60,000. The material condition of the weavers is very low. Indigo cultivation has never recovered from the unfortunate disturbances of 1860. At the present time, the annual out-turn from twelve concerns averages about 2200 cwts., valued at £70,000. At Murshidábád city and Barhampur, there are special industries of ivory carving, bell-metal work, and gold and silver embroidery. The skilled artisans thus employed are in comfortable circumstances.

Murshidábád occupies a favourable position for trade, both by river and rail; and some of the Jain merchants of Azímganj take rank among the richest men in Bengal. There is also a brisk road traffic between the different parts of the District. Owing to the gradual silting up of the river bed, despite the constant attention of the engineering staff, the through trade on the Bhágirathi has greatly fallen off in recent years. During the ten years from 1840 to 1850, the traffic registered at Jangipur amounted to an annual average of nearly 400,000 tons; in 1873, the total amount was only about 160,000 tons, and in the following year still less. The tolls paid at Jangipur yield about £8000 per annum. According to the returns furnished by the new registration system, Murshidábád stands twelfth among the Bengal Districts in the total value of its exports and imports. In 1876-77, the exports were valued at £1,020,124, of which £553,690 was carried by river and £466,452 by rail; the imports were valued at £739,906, of which £523,036 was carried by river and £216,870 by rail. The total export of rice was 1,061,900 *maunds*, of gram and pulses 342,400 *maunds*, of wheat 184,300 *maunds*, of silk 10,377 *maunds* (valued at £518,850), and of indigo 1560 *maunds* (valued at £31,200). The chief items of import were European piece-goods (£200,550), almost entirely conveyed by rail; salt (278,000

maunds), chiefly conveyed by river; raw cotton (22,100 *maunds*, valued at £33,150). The four leading marts are thus arranged:—Murshidábád, exports £129,000, imports £25,000; Dhulián, exports £68,000, imports £118,000; Jangipur, exports and imports £89,000 each; Jiáganj, exports £38,000, imports £123,000.

The loop-line of the East Indian Railway runs for about 30 miles through the western portion of the District; and the little State railway from Nalháti to Azímganj (27 miles) lies wholly within its limits. This latter line it is proposed to continue to Bhagwángola on the Ganges. In 1871, there were 13 principal lines of road in the District under local management, with a total length of 182 miles, maintained at an annual cost of £2410. In addition, 44 miles of the main road from Nadiyá to Bhagwángola, passing through Barhampur, were under the charge of the Public Works Department. Since that date, the introduction of the Road Cess has given a great impulse to the extension of means of communication.

Administration.—In the year 1870-71, the net revenue of Murshidábád District amounted to £192,046, towards which the land tax contributed £133,062, or 69 per cent.; the net expenditure was £57,692, or less than one-third of the revenue. In the same year there were 3 covenanted officers stationed in the District; 11 magisterial, 7 civil, and 11 revenue courts. For police purposes, the District is divided into 25 *thánás* or police circles. In 1872, the regular police force numbered 682 men of all ranks, maintained at a total cost of £12,899. There was also a municipal police of 350 men, and a rural police or village watch of 5315 men. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property, consisted of 6347 officers and men, giving 1 man to every 0·40 of a square mile of the area, or to every 213 persons of the population. The estimated total cost was £33,697, averaging £13, 1s. 5d. per square mile, and 6d. per head of population. Murshidábád District has always borne a bad reputation for certain classes of crime, viz. *dakáití* or gang robbery and housebreaking. In 1872, the total number of persons convicted of any offence, great or small, was 2111, being 1 person to every 641 of the population. By far the greater proportion of the convictions were for petty offences. The District contains one jail and five lock-ups. In 1872, the average daily number of prisoners was 249, of whom 20 were females; the labouring convicts averaged 163. These figures show 1 prisoner to every 5436 of the population. The total cost amounted to £1047, or £4, 3s. 4d. per prisoner; the jail manufactures yielded a net profit of £118, 14s. 2d., or £1, 9s. 1d. for each manufacturing prisoner. The death-rate was 51 per thousand. The jail has recently been transferred from the old civil station of Máidapur into a disused wing of the Barhampur barracks.

Education has widely extended during recent years. In 1856, there were only 6 schools open, attended by 717 pupils. By 1876, these numbers had risen to 506 schools and 14,664 pupils, showing an average of 5·09 square miles to each school, and 10 pupils to every thousand of the population. This great increase is due to the extension of the grant-in-aid rules to the *páthsálás* or village schools, a reform inaugurated by Sir G. Campbell in 1872. Among special institutions may be mentioned —the Barhampur College, founded in 1853, which now teaches up to the first Arts course of the university examination; the Nizámat College, limited to the education of the relatives of the Nawáb; and the Nizámat free school in Murshidábád city. In 1873, the average daily attendance at the Barhampur College was 17; the cost to Government was £1875, making £110, 6s. for each pupil. In the same year, the total amount expended on education throughout the District, exclusive of the Barhampur College, was £12,057, towards which Government contributed £4544.

The District is divided into 4 administrative Subdivisions, containing 25 *thánás*. There are 69 *parganás* or Fiscal Divisions, with an aggregate of 2850 revenue-paying estates. In 1876, there were 7 civil judges, and 10 stipendiary magistrates; the maximum distance of any village from the nearest court was 16 miles. According to the Census Report of 1872, there are 4 municipalities in the District—Murshidábád city, Barhampur, Kándi, and Jangipur—with a total population of 90,669 persons; their aggregate municipal income is returned at £4364, the average rate of taxation being nearly 11d. per head. The village of Daulatábád has also been formed into a municipality, but no statistics are available.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Murshidábád does not differ from that common to Lower Bengal, except that it experiences, to some extent, the burning winds of Central India during the hot season. The mean atmospheric pressure of the year is returned at 29·715; the annual average temperature at 78·6° F. In 1872, the highest maximum temperature recorded by day was 109°, in the month of April; the lowest minimum by night was 40°, in January. The average annual rainfall over a period of fourteen years is 54·30 inches.

As regards health, Murshidábád District ranks perhaps below the general standard of Bengal. The stagnant pools formed by the Bhágirathi during the dry season constitute a perennial source of malaria; and cholera is rarely absent from the city and suburbs of Murshidábád. Enlargement of the spleen is found in nine out of every ten cases observed. Elephantiasis and hydrocele are also endemic. It is on record that not only the trading emporium of Kásimbázár, but also several flourishing weaving villages, have been absolutely depopulated by malarious fever within the present century. On the other hand, the

District has entirely escaped the recent ravages of the Bardwán fever. The vital statistics for selected areas show a death-rate during 1875 of 21·50 per thousand in the rural area, and 32·22 in the urban area.

There were, in 1872, five charitable dispensaries in the District, at which 565 in-door and 16,671 out-door patients were treated during the year; the total income was £1441, towards which Government contributed £560. A sixth dispensary has since been opened at Lálgolá. There are two Government lunatic asylums, one at Máidapur, and a second constructed out of a portion of the Barhampur barracks in 1874. In 1876, the daily average number of inmates in these two asylums was 253.

Murshidábád Subdivision.—*Sadr* or headquarters Subdivision of Murshidábád District, Bengal. Area, 1195 square miles; number of villages, 1855; houses, 136,960; pop. (1872), 631,317, of whom 281,973 were Hindus, 346,121 Muhammadans, 290 Christians, and 2933 of other religions. Number of persons per square mile, 528; villages per square mile, 1·55; houses per square mile, 115; inmates per house, 4·6; proportion of males, 47·8 per cent. This Subdivision comprises the 12 police circles of Sujáganj, Gorábázár, Barwá, Nawáda, Hariharpára, Jalangi, Gowás, Daulatbázár, Bhagwángola, Díwánsarái, Badríhát, and Kaliánganj. In 1873, it contained 7 revenue and magisterial courts, a regular police of 389 men, a municipal force of 160, and a rural police of 1971 men; the cost of Subdivisional administration was returned at £7168.

Murshidábád Subdivision.—Properly the City of Murshidábád Subdivision.—*See* LALBAGH SUBDIVISION, by which name it is distinguished from the *Sadr* Subdivision of Murshidábád District.

Murshidábád (or *Maksudábád*).—A city in the District of the same name, Bengal; situated in 24° 11′ 5″ N. lat., and 88° 18′ 50″ E. long., on the left bank of the Bhágirathi. Murshidábád is still the most populous town in the District, though its historical importance has entirely departed. The diminution in the number of inhabitants probably commenced immediately from the date when it ceased to be the capital of Bengal, in 1772. We have no estimate of the population in those days, but it must have been very great. The circumference of the extensive suburbs has been put as high as 30 miles; but the largest dimensions of the city proper in 1759, are said to have been 5 miles along the Bhágirathi in length, and 2½ miles in breadth on each bank of the river. In the beginning of the present century, by which time the decay of the city had already set in, we have several estimates of the population; but we neither know the area which the city was then supposed to cover, nor the modes of enumeration adopted. In 1815, the number of houses was estimated at 30,000, and the total population at 165,000 souls. In 1829, the Magistrate, Mr. Hawthorn, returned

the city population at 146,176. In 1837, Mr. Adam found the inhabitants of Murshidábád city to amount to 124,804 persons, which shows a decrease of nearly 15 per cent. in eight years. The population is now no more than 46,182; but the old city comprised a much larger area than is included within the municipal boundaries of to-day. The authoritative Census of 1872 yielded the following results:—Hindus, males 14,251, females 12,960; total Hindus, 27,211: Muhammadans, males 9056, females 9768; total Muhammadans, 18,824: Christians, males 19, females 19; total Christians, 38: 'others,' males 66, females 43; total 'others,' 109: total of all religions, males 23,392, females 22,790; grand total, 46,182. The city of Murshidábád has been formed into a municipality under Act VI. of 1868. Gross municipal income in 1876-77, £2777; expenditure, £2652; rate of taxation, 8 *annas* and 8 *pies* or 1s. 1d. per head. The official English name for the municipality is Lálbágh, the name also of the Subdivision of which it is the centre. The municipal boundaries, as fixed in a notification of Government dated 17th March 1869, include 17 villages on the right or west bank of the Bhágirathi, and 160 villages on the left bank of the river.

The History of Murshidábád city is the history of Bengal during the 18th century. In 1704, the great *díwán*, Murshid Kulí Khán, fixed the seat of Government at the city which he called by his own name. Murshidábád has up to the present day continued to be the residence of the Nawáb of Bengal; but it has lost all historical importance since 1790, in which year Lord Cornwallis finally transferred the supreme criminal jurisdiction to Calcutta. The old name of the place was Maksúdábád or Mukhsoosabad, and it is stated by Tieffenthaler to have been originally founded by the Emperor Akbar. In 1696, the Afgháns from Orissa, in the course of their rebellion, advanced as far as Maksúdábád, defeated 5000 of the imperial troops, and plundered the town. The neighbouring town of Kásimbázár is said to have been saved from a similar fate by the intercession of its merchants. The place was called Murshidábád by its second founder; but the old name yet lingers, and is said to be still in constant use among the Muhammadans. It is regularly spelt Muxudavad in the early English Records, as late as the year 1760. Tradition relates that Murshid Kulí Khán moved his Government to this place through fear of Prince Azím-us-Shán, who had attempted to assassinate him at Dacca. It seems more probable that he was induced to take this step by political considerations. Dacca had lost its importance, for the Maghs and the Portuguese were no longer dangerous; and the banks of the Bhágirathi afforded a more central position for the management of the three Provinces of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa. The new city also was situated on the line of trade, along which the treasures of India were now beginning to

find their way to the European settlements on the Húglí; and it commanded the town of Kasímbázár, where all the foreigners had important factories. Moreover, the situation in those days was regarded as very healthy. The further history of the city is involved in the sketch of the general history of MURSHIDABAD DISTRICT.

The City and its Buildings. — Murshidábád exhibits at the present day but few traces of its former grandeur. The chief object of attraction is the new palace of the Nawáb Názím, on the banks of the river, and nearly in the centre of the city. It is a large and imposing pile of buildings in the Italian style, and its proportions are by some preferred to those of the Government House at Calcutta. It took ten years in building, and was completed in 1837, at a cost of £167,000. The architect was General Macleod of the Bengal Engineers; but all the other persons engaged on the work were natives. The edifice itself is called by the natives the Ainá Mahál; and, together with other buildings enclosed within the same wall, is known as the Nizámat *kilá* or fort. The palace is 425 feet long, 200 wide, and 80 high. It has a splendid marble floor, and contains a banqueting-hall 290 feet long, with sliding doors encased in mirrors. 'In the centre of the building is a dome, from which hangs a vast and most superb chandelier of 150 branches, presented to the Nawáb by the Queen. Beneath stands a beautiful ivory throne, with painted and gilded flowers, a specimen of the perfection of that ivory work for which Murshidábád is famous. Hung on the walls are portraits of the present Nawáb, his ancestors, and his sons.'—(*Travels of a Hindu*, vol. i. pp. 79, 80). The *zanáná*, or private apartments, are situated to the right of the main entrance, and in the rear of the palace. Within the same enclosure is the Imámbára or 'house of prayer,' which is built directly in front of the northern principal door. Outside the *kilá*, and a short distance on the left along the road leading to Barhampur, is a magnificent range of coach-houses and stabling for horses and elephants. The Nizamát College, which has been built exclusively for the education of the relatives of the Nawáb, at a cost of £7800, is situated in the opposite direction, a little way up the river.

The present Imámbára dates only from A.H. 1264 (A.D. 1847), as is denoted by an inscription composed of the letters of the words, 'The Grove of Karbala.' It is itself a fine structure, being considerably larger than the Imámbára at Húglí; but it occupies the place of the far more celebrated building erected by Siráj-ud-daulá, which is thus described in a native chronicle (*Tarikh-i-Mansuri*, by Sayyid Alí; MS. translated by Professor Blochmann, pp. 97-102):—'It was built with care and reverence, Muhammadan workmen only being employed and Hindus excluded. The Nawáb laid the first stone with his own hand, and put lime over it, after which the workmen commenced. In the

midst of the Imámbára, a piece of ground called *madiná* was dug out to the depth of a man's stature, and filled with earth taken from the holy place at Karbala. On all four sides were rooms forming a sort of cloister. On the east were vestibules facing toward the west, with a pulpit and a place set aside for a sort of chapter-house, where the elegies on Husáin were read. In the west of the building, there were similar vestibules facing toward the east, in which were nearly a hundred flags, and the sacred coffins made of silver, gold, glass, and wood. During the *Muharram*, the Kurán was here chanted day and night, and at fixed times during the other months of the year. The cloisters in the north and east of the building were constructed on a similar plan; but these contained only the out-offices, etc., where hundreds of workmen kept themselves in readiness during the *Muharram* to illuminate the place. The verandahs of the second storey contained screens of mica, behind which the lamps hung. On the screens were pictures of men, animals, and flowers, which had a striking effect when their transparent panes were illuminated from within. All kinds of chandeliers, in large numbers, were placed in the vestibules, and also Indian lamps. In the north and south vestibules were two representations of the Burág,—the horse on which the prophet ascended to heaven, with a human face and a peacock's tail. The length of the tails reached to the roof of the house. Well-polished shields and china or silver plates were fitted into the tails, to represent the eyes of a peacock's feathers. Swords, sabres, and daggers were arranged in different patterns around these shields, and hundreds of wax candles made the whole a dazzling and splendid object. All these costly treasures, lavished upon the temple by Siráj-ud-daulá with so much pride, were turned into ready money by Mír Kásim. This was not, however, to relieve his own necessities,—a motive which would have seemed sacrilege to one so religious as Mír Kásim,—but to assist the poor of the city, and to despatch a number of indigent Muhammadans on a pilgrimage to Mecca.' This building was accidentally burnt to the ground during a display of fireworks about forty years ago. Whilst the present Imámbára was building, which is said to have cost £60,000, the workmen received their food in addition to their wages, and when it was finished a present of a double shawl and a handkerchief. At the season of the *Muharram* a daily distribution of food attracts large crowds, who are again drawn together in the evening by fireworks and illuminations. The Nawáb attends one day's celebration, and takes his seat on a black carpet, over which a white embroidered coverlet is spread, and a black rug takes the place of the usual bolster. After the recitation of the customary elegies, sherbet and spices are handed round. Other curious practices, peculiar to the sect of the Shiás among the Muhammadans, accom-

pany this festival. On the seventh day of the *Muharram*, the Imámbára is turned into a harem, and all the Begams attend. They place chains on the Nawáb, according to custom, and a chain round his neck. Hundreds of women, high and low, receive presents from the Begams, who are said to distribute thousands of rupees.

The imperial music forms the most striking emblem of royal dignity still maintained at Murshidábád. It may still be heard in the early morning sounding from the great fortified gateway which leads to the palace. This peculiar strain of instrumental music, which was allowed by the Delhi Emperors to all *subahdárs* (deputy governors) as a mark of delegated sovereignty, is frequently alluded to by the native chroniclers as the public accompaniment of each important event in the history of the Nawábs.

The Raft Festival is still celebrated at Murshidábád in honour of Khwája Khizr, the name given by the Muhammadans to the prophet Elias. With this saint is connected the celebrated custom of launching tiny light-ships on the river, which may be seen to great advantage on the Bhágirathi. On certain nights in the rainy season, thousands of little rafts, each with its lamp burning, are floated down the stream. Their construction is very simple. A piece of plantain or bamboo bears a sweetmeat or two and the lamp. This fête is rendered more picturesque by the unusual presence of the women, who are allowed out of doors for the occasion. The Nawáb Názím participates in the show with much magnificence on the last Thursday of the month of Bhádra (September), when the European residents are invited. A raft of 100 cubits square is constructed of plantain trees and bamboos, and covered with earth. On this is erected a small fortress, bearing on its walls all manner of fireworks. At a given signal the raft is launched and floated to the farther side of the river, when the fireworks are let off, their reflection on the water producing a most beautiful effect.

Apart from the Nizámat *kilá* and the buildings connected therewith, there is but one other structure worth notice now standing in the city proper. This is the mosque erected by Mani Begam, in the vicinity of the Mubárak Manzil, formerly called the Kandil Bágh. The peculiarity of this mosque was its liberality of worship. On one side prayers were conducted according to the Hanafí rite of the Sunni sect, while on the other side were being observed the religious ceremonies of the Shiás, the Court sect.

The General Aspect of the City is thus described by the Revenue Surveyor (1860):—'Numerous brick buildings stand all along the banks of the river, north and south of the palace, which belong to, and are chiefly occupied by, the relatives and adherents of the Nawáb. Many others, some with pretty gardens, are scattered about in the

tangled maze of jungle, hovels, holes, and tanks which lie to the eastward. Standing on the top of the palace dome, the loftiest place in the District, and looking over the city and its suburbs, little meets the eye but a dense forest of bamboos and trees of all kinds. Hardly a clear spot is to be seen. It is only when one turns to the west that the river and the high land in the north-west of the District present open tracts. A stranger, as he stood and gazed, would never imagine that below was a dense mass of human beings of all classes, crowded together in every description of house and hut. There are no defined limits to Murshidábád as a city, nor is any part known especially by this name. It is given indiscriminately to a collection of temples, mosques, handsome brick houses, gardens, walled enclosures, hovels, huts, and tangled jungle, containing the ruins of edifices that have sprung up and decayed around the many palaces of the former and present Nawábs Názím of Murshidábád.'

Motíjhíl, or the Pearl Lake (a name also applied to a lake in Kashmír and another in Lahore), is about 2 miles south of Murshidábád. Dr. B. Hamilton states that it has been one of the former windings of the river; but others are of opinion that it was formed by the excavations made to procure bricks for building the houses, which were at one time surrounded by the lake in the form of a horse-shoe. It continues to be a beautiful spot, but hardly a relic remains of its ancient magnificence. It seems to have been first chosen as a residence by Nuázish Muhammad, the nephew of Alí Vardí Khán. It is more celebrated, however, for the palace built by Siráj-ud-daulá at an enormous expense. The materials were partly brought from the ruins of Gaur; and a few arches are still left, constructed of the black marble (or rather hornblende) which once covered the tombs of old Pathán kings of Bengal. The following story is told of its completion, to explain the name of Mansúrganj, by which it is commonly known:—'As the building was nearly finished, Siráj-ud-daulá invited Alí Vardí to see it. When he came, Siráj-ud-daulá locked him up in a room, and refused to release him unless the *zamíndárs* there paid a fine for their land. This request the Nawáb was compelled to grant, and also to allow to his petulant grandson the privilege of erecting a granary. This granary the people called Mansúrganj, or the Granary of the Victorious, *i.e.* of Siráj-ud-daulá, who outwitted his grandfather. The *abwáb*, or extraordinary taxation, extorted on this occasion, is said to have amounted to Rs. 501,597.' It was from Motíjhíl that Siráj-ud-daulá, in 1757, marched out for the battle of Plassey; it was in the palace here that Colonel Clive placed Mír Jafar on the *masnad;* and it was again at Motíjhíl that Lord Clive, as *díwán* of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, held the first English *Punyá*, in 1766. Mír Jafar fixed his residence on the farther side of the river; and Motíjhíl—or Murádbágh,

as the place was sometimes called, from the name of a second palace in the neighbourhood—now became the home of the English Political Resident at the court of Murshidábád. One of the first to fill this office was Warren Hastings. Subsequently, during the years 1771-73, Mr. John Shore (afterwards Lord Teignmouth) lived at Motíjhíl, where he amused himself by improving the grounds and studying the Oriental languages. He described his life there in the following words :—'Here I enjoy cooing doves, whistling blackbirds, and purling streams. I am quite solitary, and, except once a week, see no one of Christian complexion.' In 1785-86, the headquarters of the English were removed from Motíjhíl to Máidapur, prior to their final transfer to Barhampur. The *Punyá* or annual settlement of the revenues of Bengal was annually held at Motíjhíl, until it was abolished in 1772, when the Khálsá or Treasury was removed to Calcutta. It was a ceremony of great state, at which all the great *zamíndárs* attended in person, and paid a sort of homage to the Nawáb. *Khiláts* or presents were distributed, which were regarded as a confirmation of their appointment; and the rent-roll of the Provinces was then fixed for the year. A form like the *Punyá* is still kept up at the *kachari* of every *zamíndár*, but the Government ceremony has never been re-established. Clive attached great importance to this institution, and raised a special revenue collection in order to defray the expenses; but in 1769, the Court of Directors prohibited the giving of presents. In 1767, the *Punyá* was held at Motíjhíl with peculiar pomp. The Nawáb was seated on the *masnad*, and Mr. Verelst, the Governor, on his right hand. The latter in the strongest manner urged the ministers and landholders to give all possible encouragement to the clearing and cultivating of lands for the mulberry. On this occasion, *khiláts* were distributed to the amount of Rs. 216,870. Some of the items were—for the Governor and his Council, Rs. 46,750; for the Nizámat, Rs. 38,800; for the people of the Treasury, Rs. 22,634; for the Zamíndár of Nadiyá, Rs. 7352; for the Rájá of Bírbhúm, Rs. 1200; for the Rájá of Bishnupur, Rs. 734.

Khush Bágh, the Garden of Happiness, the old cemetery of the Nawábs, lies on the right bank of the Bhágirathi, opposite Motíjhíl. The following description is based upon notes by Captain Layard, quoted in the Report of the Revenue Surveyor :—The cemetery consists of three walled enclosures. The outer of these is entered by a gateway from the east side, in front of which are the ruins of an old *ghát*, which formerly led down to the Bhágirathi, when that river ran under the walls. The channel is now nearly half a mile distant. The wall facing the river is loopholed for musketry, and flanked by octagonal bastions. The grounds inside are all laid out as gardens, with hedges bordering the walks; and the flowers grown in the beds serve to adorn the tombs.

Many fine trees also afford a delightful shade to the explorer. Traces of fresco paint, almost obliterated by damp and neglect, may still be seen on the walls. In the outer enclosure there are eighteen tombs, only two of which have any inscription. These two have the same verse from the Kurán, the one in Persian, the other in Arabic. The middle of the three enclosures is the principal cemetery, and contains the remains of the 'good Nawáb,' Alí Vardí Khán, and of his grandson Siráj-ud-daulá. Besides the mausoleum, there are a mosque and two other buildings set apart for the female descendants of the dead, who still retain charge of the cemetery. Spread on the tombs are dark-coloured cloths or palls, spangled with gold and silver flowers; fresh flowers are strewed daily on and around them, and lights are kept continually burning. This cemetery was first endowed by Alí Vardí Khán, who allotted Rs. 305 monthly, from the collections of the villages of Bandárdeh and Nawábganj, to defray the expenses of keeping the place in order. After the murder of Siráj-ud-daulá, his widow, the Begam Lutf-ul-nissa, who had accompanied her husband in his flight to Rájmahál, and had been afterwards banished to Dacca with other ladies of the court, was subsequently recalled and placed in charge of the cemetery of Khush Bágh. Here she remained till her death, receiving, in addition to the Rs. 305 already mentioned, a personal allowance of Rs. 1000 per mensem. She now lies buried in the mausoleum by the side of her husband, but the charge is still held by her descendants, who draw pensions from the Government treasury at Barhampur. Forster mentions in 1781, that *mullás* were employed here to offer prayers for the dead, and the widow of Siráj-ud-daulá used often to come to the tomb and perform certain ceremonies of mourning. The entire cost of the establishment required for maintaining the burial-ground is now defrayed by the English Government. The third and innermost enclosure contains only a tank, the former dwelling-place of the attendants, a *muzaffar-khána* or travellers' home, and a well. This latter is no longer used, and has been walled up; for it is said that a *fakír* accidentally fell into it and was drowned, which caused its waters to be polluted and accursed.

To the north-east of Motíjhíl, and immediately outside the city of Murshidábád, is the Kuttara, containing the tomb of Murshid Kulí Khán, erected for him by forced Hindu labour. It is said to have been constructed after the model of the great mosque at Mecca, and has two splendid minarets 70 feet high. The Nawáb is buried at the foot of the stairs, so as to be trampled on by every one who passes up. The Kuttara is described by Hodges, a traveller of 1780, as 'a grand seminary of Musalmán learning, 70 feet square, adorned by a mosque which rises high above all the surrounding building.' In this neighbourhood is the Topkhána, the arsenal of the Nawábs, which formed

the eastern gateway of the city. A cannon had been placed between two young trees, which have now grown up, and their branches have combined to lift the gun high above the ground. BERHAMPUR, the civil headquarters of Murshidábád, a military cantonment, is dealt with in a separate article.

Trade.—Murshidábád city, with its suburb of AZIMGANJ, on the opposite bank of the Bhágirathi, is the chief centre of trade and manufacture in the District. Though the great banking house of Jagat Seth has long ago fallen into decay, the Jain merchants of Murshidábád still rank as the wealthiest of their class in Bengal. Their dealings in gold and silver bullion are especially large; and some of their number almost monopolize the local traffic on the Brahmaputra, as far up as the north-east frontier of Assam. The principal industries of Murshidábád are those fostered by the luxury of the native court. Carving in ivory, conducted with much skill and finish, is an old speciality of the city. The carvers can turn out any article to order, from the smallest European toy to the state-throne of the Nawáb. Other manufactures are the embroidery of fancy articles with gold and silver lace, the weaving of silk goods, the making of musical instruments, and hookah-pipes. In the year 1876-77, the total value of the registered river trade of Murshidábád city was returned at £154,692. Among the exports, valued altogether at £129,752, the chief items were raw silk (£45,000), rice (£37,000), gram and pulse (£10,000), and wheat (£7000). The imports were valued at only £24,940, including sugar and salt (each £5000), and piece-goods (£3000).

Murtizápur.—Town in Amráoti District, Berár, and a station on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway; situated in lat. 20° 44′ N., and long. 77° 25′ E., 30 miles west-south-west of Amráoti town. Pop. (1867), 3897. Large quantities of cotton are sent here from Kareng and other places for carriage to Bombay. Murtizápur is the headquarters of a *tahsíl.* Travellers' bungalow.

Murwára.—Northern *tahsíl* or Subdivision of Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces. Pop. (1872), 259,543, residing in 1175 villages or townships and 67,121 houses; area, 1613 square miles.

Murwára.—Rising town in Jabalpur District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 23° 51′ N., and long. 80° 26′ E., 57 miles north-east of Jabalpur, on the road to Mírzápur. Pop. (1872), 2885, chiefly agriculturists. Murwára has a Government school; and the Katná river is here crossed by two fine bridges, on the northern road and the railway respectively.

Musafirkhána.—*Tahsíl* or Subdivision of Sultánpur District, Oudh. —*See* MUZAFFARKHANA.

Musiri.—Town in Trichinopoli District, Madras; headquarters of an

Assistant Collector and a *tahsíldár*. Situated 25 miles from Trichinopoli town, in lat. 10° 57′ N., and long. 78° 28′ 56″ E. Pop. (1871), 4018; number of houses, 665.

Mussooree (*Masúri*).—Town and sanitarium in Dehrá Dún District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 27′ 30″ N., long. 78° 6′ 30″ E. Stands on the crest of a Himálayan peak, among beautiful and varied mountain scenery. Forms practically one station with LANDAUR. Elevation above sea level, 7433 feet. Large numbers of visitors during the summer months. Protestant and Roman Catholic churches, schools, public library, masonic lodge, club, volunteer corps, brewery, 3 banks, 3 hotels, numerous boarding-houses. Government Botanical Gardens. Charitable dispensary afforded relief in 1872 to 2450 persons, of whom 50 were in-patients. Municipal revenue (including Landaur) in 1875-76, £2440; from taxes, £1555, or 12s. 8⅝d. per head of population (2442) within municipal limits. In the height of the season, however, the visitors raise the number of inhabitants to about 8000. For further details, *see* LANDAUR.

Mustafábád. — North-western *tahsíl* of Máinpuri District, North-Western Provinces; lying in the centre of the Doáb upland, and watered by a branch of the Ganges Canal. Area, 321 square miles, of which 181 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 155,476; land revenue, £25,537; total Government revenue, £28,091; rental paid by cultivators, £45,510; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 5¾d.

Mustafábád. — Town in Ambála (Umballa) District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 12′ N., long. 77° 13′ E.; pop. (1868), 3775. Lies on road from Saháranpur to Ludhiáná. Small citadel, the residence of a Síkh Rájá.

Mustáfábád.—Town in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; situated 19 miles from Faizábád town. Pop. (1869), 2585, viz. 1581 Hindus and 1004 Musalmáns. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway passes through the village. Two Hindu temples, and one mosque.

Mustáfábád.—Town in Rái Bareli District, Oudh; situated 3 miles north of the Ganges, and 20 from Rái Bareli town, on the road from Salon to Mánikpur. Formerly a flourishing place, with many handsome buildings and tombs. Rájá Darshan Sinh plundered the town in the latter years of native rule, and since then it has declined. Pop. (1869), 2473, viz. 1576 Hindus and 897 Musalmáns. Village school.

Mút-htí (*Moot-htee*).—Revenue circle in the north-eastern township of Tavoy District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Area, 12 square miles; pop. (1876), 2281; gross revenue, £530.

Mút-kywon (*Moot-kywon*).—Highly cultivated revenue circle in the Angyí township, Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. The country generally is low-lying; the area under rice in 1877-78 was 10,514 acres. Pop. in that year, 3315; revenue, £2811.

Mút-ta-ma (*Moot-ta-ma*, more generally called *Martaban*).—Revenue circle in the township of the same name, Amherst District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated on the right bank of the Salwín river, opposite Maulmain. Towards the river the land is good; but the country at the foot of the Martaban Hills, which lie to the north-west and south-east, is rendered uncultivable by the flood of water that rushes down from the mountains in larger quantities than the existing drainage channels can carry off. Pop. (1876-77), 4755; land revenue, £1453, and capitation tax, £451. The only important village is MARTABAN.

Muttra (*Mathurá*).—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 27° 14′ 30″ and 27° 58′ N. lat., and between 77° 19′ 30″ and 78° 33′ E. long. Area, 1612 square miles; population in 1872, 887,689 persons. Muttra forms the north-western District of the Agra Division. It is bounded on the north by Alígarh and Gurgáon; on the west by the Native State of Bhartpur; on the south by Agra; and on the east by Máinpuri, Etah, and Alígarh. The administrative headquarters are at the city of MUTTRA, on the right bank of the Jumna (Jamuná). Muttra is mentioned by Ptolemy as the 'Modoura of the gods' (Μοδούρα τῶν θεῶν), and by Arrian and Pliny as 'Methora' (Μέθορα).

Physical Aspects.—The District of Muttra comprises an irregular and artificial strip of territory, lying on either side of the river Jumna (Jamuná). The general level is only broken on the south-western angle, along the Bhartpur frontier, by low ranges of limestone hills. The eastern half of the District presents the usual features of the Gangetic Doáb, consisting for the most part of a rich upland plain, abundantly irrigated by wells and rivers, and traversed by distributaries of the Ganges Canal. Its luxuriant crops and fruitful orchards indicate the fertility of the soil; but it possesses little historical interest, and owes its present prosperity chiefly to the security of British rule. The western or trans-Jumna portion, on the other hand, though comparatively unfavoured by nature, is rich in mythological association and antiquarian remains. The aspect of this sacred tract, where the divine brothers Krishna and Balaráma grazed their herds, is very disappointing to the traveller. The crops are scanty, and the larger forest trees are not found. The dust lies deep on every road and field, and the slightest breath of air stirs it up into an impenetrable haze. For eight months of the year, the Jumna shrinks to the dimensions of a mere rivulet, meandering through a waste of sand, and bounded by monotonous flats of arable land, through which the hill torrents have worn stony ravines. During the rains, however, when pilgrims pour toward the sacred sites which are found throughout the whole trans-Jumna tract, the river swells to a mighty stream, a mile or more in

breadth; the temporary torrents and lakes with which the District abounds are filled to overflowing; green foliage spreads over the barren rocks and hills; and the dusty plain becomes a waving mass of verdure. Till very recently, nearly the whole of Muttra District consisted of pasture and woodland, and many of the villages still stand among encircling groves; but the new roads constructed as relief-works during the great famine of 1837-38 threw open many large tracts of country, and the task of reclamation has since proceeded rapidly under the auspices of Government. The sheet of water known as the Noh Jhíl is a swampy lake, about 2 miles east of the Jumna, in the northern portion of the Doáb tract. It has an average length of 2½ miles, with a breadth of 1½, but swells in the rainy season over a much larger area.

History.—The central portion of Muttra District forms one of the most sacred spots in Hindu mythology. The circuit of 84 *kos* around Gokul and Brindában bears the name of the Braj-Mandal, and carries with it many associations of the earliest Aryan times. Here Krishna and Balaráma, the divine herdsmen, fed their cattle upon the level plain; and numerous relics of antiquity in the towns of MUTTRA, GOBARDHAN, GOKUL, MAHABAN, and BRINDABAN still attest the sanctity with which this holy tract was invested. During the Buddhist period, Muttra became a centre of the new faith, being mentioned by all the early Chinese pilgrims in their itineraries. After the invasion of Mahmúd of Ghazní in 1017, the city fell into insignificance till the reign of Akbar. Thenceforward, its history merges in that of the Játs of BHARTPUR, and only acquires a separate individuality with the rise of Suráj Mall. In 1712, Badan Sinh, father of that famous adventurer, proclaimed himself leader of the Játs, and took up his residence at Sahár, where he built a handsome palace. In his old age, he distributed his possessions among his sons, giving the south-western portion of Bhartpur to his youngest, Partáb Sinh, and the remainder of his dominions, including Muttra, to his eldest, Suráj Mall. On Badan Sinh's death, Suráj Mall moved to Bhartpur, and assumed the title of Rájá. In 1748, the Emperor Ahmad Sháh invited the Ját leader to join with Holkar under the command of the Wazír Safdar Jang, in suppressing the Rohillá rebellion. When Safdar Jang revolted (*see* OUDH), Suráj Mall and his Játs threw in their lot with the Wazír, while Ghází-ud-dín, the imperial general, obtained the help of the Marhattás. Safdar Jang retreated to Oudh, whereupon Ghází-ud-dín laid siege to Bhartpur, but, mistrusting his Marhattá allies, shortly returned to Delhi, deposed Ahmad Sháh, and raised Alamgír II. to the throne. When Ahmad Sháh Duráni invaded India from Kandahár in 1757, Sardár Jahán Khán endeavoured to levy tribute from Muttra; but finding that the people withdrew into their forts, he fell back upon the city,

plundered its wealth, and massacred all the inhabitants upon whom he could lay hands. Two years later, the new Emperor was murdered, and the Afghán invader once more advanced upon Delhi. Ghází-ud-dín fled to Muttra and Bhartpur, and organized the Hindu confederacy of Játs and Marhattás which shattered itself in vain against the forces of Ahmad Sháh at PANIPAT in January 1761. Suráj Mall, however, withdrew his forces before the decisive battle, marched on Agra, ejected the Marhattás, and made himself master of the city. Ahmad Sháh had placed the hapless Sháh Alam on the throne of Delhi, and the Ját leader thought it a favourable opportunity to attack the Rohillá Wazír, Najíb-ud-daulá. Marching to Sháhdera, 6 miles from Delhi, he was surprised, captured, and put to death by a small party of the imperialists. Two of his sons, who succeeded to his command, were successively murdered, and the third, Nawáb Sinh, after losing Agra during Zabita Khán's rebellion, died in 1776. The fourth son, Ranjít Sinh (not to be confounded with the more famous Síkh Mahárájá), inherited Bhartpur with only an insignificant strip of territory. During the contest between Sindhia and the Rájput princes in 1788, the Marhattá chief obtained the aid of the Játs in raising the siege of Agra, then held by Sindhia's forces, and besieged by Ghulám Kádir. Muttra and Agra thus fell once more into Sindhia's hands. In 1803, Ranjít Sinh of Bhartpur joined Lord Lake in his campaign against Sindhia, with a force of 5000 Ját horsemen; and upon the defeat of the Marhattás, he received as a reward the south-western portion of Muttra, with Kishangarh and Rewári. But in the following year, Ranjít Sinh gave shelter to Holkar, when a fugitive, after the battle of Díg (Deeg). This led to the first siege of Bhartpur by Lord Lake; and although his capital was not taken, Ranjít Sinh lost the territory granted to him in 1803, and the whole of Muttra District thus passed under British rule. Thenceforward it remained free from historical incidents till the Mutiny of 1857. News of the Meerut outbreak reached Muttra on 14th May in that year. Two days later, some Bhartpur troops arrived, and marched for Delhi under British officers. The force halted at Hodal on the 26th, and on the 30th the sepoys sent to escort the treasure from Muttra to Agra proved mutinous, so that the officials were compelled to fly and join the troops at Hodal. Shortly afterwards, the Bhartpur force likewise mutinied, and the Europeans fled for their lives. The Magistrate returned to Muttra, and, after vainly visiting Agra in search of aid, remained with the friendly Seths (native bankers) till 14th June. After the mutiny of the Gwalior contingent at Alígarh on 2d July, the Nímach (Neemuch) insurgents, marching on Muttra, drove all the Europeans into Agra. The whole eastern portion of the District then rose in rebellion, till 5th October, when the Magistrate made an expedition from Agra, and captured the rebel leader Deokarn.

Colonel Cotton's column shortly afterwards proceeded through the District to Kosi, punishing the insurgent villages; and after its return to Agra through Muttra, no further disturbances took place.

Population.—The Census of 1853 returned the number of inhabitants of Muttra at 862,909. At the enumeration of 1865, the number was 802,702, showing a decrease of 60,207, or 7·5 per cent. In 1872, the total was returned at 887,689 persons, being an increase of 84,987, or 10·5 per cent. during the seven years from 1865 to 1872, and a net increase for the whole nineteen years of 24,780 persons, or 2·8 per cent. The Census of 1872 extended over an area of 1612 square miles, and disclosed a total population of 887,689 persons, distributed among 972 villages or townships, and inhabiting an aggregate of 188,975 houses. From these data the following averages may be calculated:—Persons per square mile, 551; villages per square mile, 0·6; houses per square mile, 117; persons per village, 913; persons per house, 4·6. Classified according to sex, there were (exclusive of non-Asiatics)—males, 480,615; females, 406,740; proportion of males, 54·2 per cent. Classified according to age, there were (with the like omission), under 12 years—males, 161,229; females, 132,512; total children, 293,741, or 33·10 per cent. As regards religion, Muttra still remains an essentially Hindu District, the old faith still counting 812,995 adherents, or 91·6 per cent., as against 74,347 Muhammadans, or 8·4 per cent. The Christians in 1872 numbered 13. The chief Hindu castes were represented as follows:—Bráhmans, 148,762; Rájputs, 76,100; Banias, 52,822; Ahírs, 16,487; Chamárs, 138,123; Káyasths, 5062; and Kurmís, 2027. Of the Musalmáns, 54,688 returned themselves as Shaikhs, 2100 as Sayyids, 619 as Mughals, and 8553 as Patháns. In 1874, *parganá* Jalesar, with a population of 157,775, and an area of 286 square miles, was transferred to Agra District; so that these statistics do not accurately apply to the District of Muttra as at present constituted. Nine towns in 1872 contained a population exceeding 5000 souls, namely—MUTTRA, 59,281; BRINDABAN, 20,350; CHATA, 6720; SHERGARH, 5305; KOSI, 12,770; MAHABAN, 6930; BISAWAR, 5221; KURSANDA, 7145; and SURIR, 5279.

Agriculture.—Out of an assessed area of 1423 square miles in 1872, 1189 square miles were returned as cultivated, 89 as cultivable waste, and 144 as barren. *Joár* and cotton form the principal crops for the autumn harvest (*kharíf*), while gram and barley constitute the principal staples for the spring reaping (*rabí*). These require but little skill or trouble in their cultivation, nor do they demand artificial irrigation. The more valuable crops, such as sugar-cane, tobacco, indigo, and vegetables, are all but unknown, while wheat occupies an extremely small area. In the western *parganás*, a narrow belt of sand extends for about 3 to 5 miles from the border, followed by a light but strong

loam, which prevails up to the foot of the sandhills skirting the Jumna valley. Close to these low ridges, the soil becomes much lighter, ending near the river in beds of pure sand. The loam, though friable and easily worked, contains quite enough clay to give it body. Irrigation from tanks is not practised, and no small streams pass through the District; but distributaries from the Ganges Canal water part of the Doáb *parganás*, while the Agra Canal, which now traverses the whole trans-Jumna tract, will spread fertility through the dusty plain of the Braj-Mandal. The mass of the population is fairly well off. The last settlement of the land revenue pressed lightly upon the District. No very severe famine has lately occurred; the harvests have yielded well; and the peasants are therefore in better circumstances than those of neighbouring Districts. The tenures of land do not readily fall under the standard types of the North-Western Provinces, being held by impure species of *zamíndárí* and *bháyáchára*. The greater number of estates are split up into infinitesimal fractions among the whole village community; and the small farmers, who till their own scanty plots, form a very large class, while the number of non-proprietary cultivators is proportionately small. Most of the latter have no hereditary rights, but hold as tenants-at-will. Wages in 1877 ruled as follows:—Coolies and unskilled labourers, 2¼d. to 3¾d. per diem; field hands, 2¼d. to 3d.; bricklayers and carpenters, 6d. to 2s. Women obtain about one-fifth less than men, and children from one-third to two-thirds. The prices of food grains in 1877 were as follows:—Wheat, 26 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 4d. per cwt.; rice, 9 *sers* per rupee, or 12s. 5d. per cwt.; *joár*, 32 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 6d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 30 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 9d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—Muttra has often suffered severely from drought and famine. In 1813, the *parganá* of Sahár was a centre of great distress. Many persons perished of hunger, or sold their wives and children for a few rupees or a single meal. In 1825-26, all the western Districts of the North-West Provinces were visited by a terrible drought, which especially afflicted Mahában and Jalesar (now in Agra District). In 1837-38, the famine pressed severely upon the Doáb portion of Muttra, and also on the south-western hill tract. In 1860-61, only half the usual quality of land was irrigated, and only the irrigated area produced a harvest. Many of the poorer cultivators left the District towards the close of 1860, and only one-fourth returned. The deaths from starvation averaged 497 a month in the first quarter, and 85 in the second quarter, of 1861; but in July and August they fell to 5. The total number of deaths from starvation was reported at about 2500.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The District, being mainly agricultural, has little external trade, and no manufactures of importance. The East Indian Railway traverses the extreme eastern border of the Doáb

parganás, and has a course of 7½ miles within the District, with 1 station, Mánikpur or Jalesar Road. The light railway on the metre gauge system, intended eventually to connect the East Indian line with Bhartpur, runs at present from Háthras road station on the main line through Háthras to Muttra, a distance of 29 miles. It has 5 stations, at Háthras road, Háthras town, Mursán, Ráya, and Muttra. Ten metalled roads within the District have an aggregate length of 176 miles; the chief are the Agra and Delhi, Muttra and Bhartpur, and Háthras roads. The unmetalled lines comprise 115 miles of 'first-class,' and 414 miles of 'second-class' roads.

Administration.—The District of Muttra, as an administrative unit, dates only from the year 1832, when it was formed out of Agra and Sádábád. The District staff usually consists of a Collector-Magistrate, Joint Magistrate, and Assistant Magistrate—all Europeans; together with 1 Deputy Magistrate, 6 *tahsíldárs*, and 8 special Magistrates—all natives. Muttra is comprised in the jurisdiction of the civil and sessions judge of Agra; and the sub-judge of the same city also exercises civil powers within the District. At Muttra itself is a *munsif's* or civil court of original jurisdiction. The total amount of revenue, imperial, local, and municipal, raised in the District during the year 1876 amounted to £234,178; the land tax contributing £138,354. In 1875, the local funds were returned at £28,952, and the local expenditure at £15,357. During the same year, the total strength of the regular police force was 850 men, maintained at a cost of £9267; being 1 policeman to every 1·89 square mile and every 1043 of the population, the cost averaging £5, 14s. per square mile, or 2½d. per head of the population. The District jail at Muttra contained in 1875 a daily average of 183 prisoners, of whom 179 were male and 4 female. The average cost per inmate amounted to £3, 17s., and the net earnings of each prisoner to 6s. The District contains 13 imperial and 9 local post offices, together with 1 telegraph station on the East Indian Railway and 2 on the Muttra light line. Education was carried on in 1875 by 232 schools, with an aggregate roll of 7790 pupils, being at the rate of 1 school to every 6·94 square miles of area, and 8·7 pupils to every thousand of the population. Aided Anglo-vernacular schools exist at Muttra, Brindában, and Kosi. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is subdivided into 6 *tahsíls* and 6 *parganás*. The three municipal towns of Muttra, Brindában, and Kosi had an aggregate revenue in 1875 of £9542, or an average of 1s. 11d. per head of the population (97,211) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Muttra is dry and hot, owing to the proximity of the sandy deserts on the west. Great extremes of temperature occur, the cold of winter being comparatively excessive,

while hot winds blow from the west with great violence during April, May, and June. The average rainfall for the ten years ending 1869 amounted to 23·6 inches; the maximum during this period being 37 inches in 1867, and the minimum, 11·3 inches in 1860 (the year of famine). On the whole, the climate is considered healthy, perhaps on account of its dryness, and the absence of permanent ponds or torrents in the dry season. The total number of deaths reported in 1875 was 17,490, or 19·71 per thousand. Government maintains 3 charitable dispensaries—at Muttra, Brindában, and Kosi, which afforded relief in 1875 to a total of 21,424 persons, of whom 421 were in-patients.

Muttra (*Mathurá*).—Municipal city and administrative headquarters of Muttra District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 27° 30′ 13″ N., and long. 77° 43′ 45″ E., on the right bank of the Jumna (Jamuná), about 30 miles above Agra. Pop. (1872), 59,281, consisting of 49,937 Hindus and 9344 Muhammadans. Fa-Hian, the Chinese pilgrim, mentions it as a centre of the Buddhist faith about 400 A.D.; and his successor Hiouen Thsang, about 650 A.D., also notices that it contained 20 Buddhist monasteries and 5 Bráhmanical temples. Sacked by Mahmúd of Ghazní in 1017-18. About 1500, Sultán Sikandar Lodi utterly destroyed all the shrines, temples, and images; and in 1636, Sháh Jahán appointed a governor expressly to 'stamp out idolatry' in Muttra. In 1669-70, Aurangzeb visited the city, and destroyed many temples and shrines, so that the existing remains date back for the most part only to the period of Ját supremacy (*see* MUTTRA DISTRICT). Some relics of the Buddhist buildings may still, however, be traced. (See *ante*, p. 477, MUTTRA DISTRICT.) Muttra town was sacked by 25,000 Afghán cavalry belonging to Ahmad Sháh Abdálí in 1756. The principal surviving edifices include the Satí-búrj (or 'Tower of the Faithful Widow'), built by Rájá Bhagwan Dás in 1570; the Jamá Masjíd or mosque of Abd-un-Nabi Khán, built in 1662; the mosque of Aurangzeb, built in 1669 on the site of the temple of Kesva Deva; and the modern temples of Gata-srám (1800), Dwára Kádhís (1815), Bije Gobind (1867), and Rádha Krishna (1871). Muttra still forms a great centre of Hindu devotion, and large numbers of pilgrims flock annually to its festivals. The surrounding country teems with associations and legends of the divine brothers Krishna and Balarám, who dwelt in the neighbouring plain. A light line of railway connects Muttra with the East Indian main line at Háthras road station. Government offices, courts, charitable dispensary, Anglo-vernacular school, jail, telegraph station. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £5720; from taxes, £4702, or 1s. 4¾d. per head of population (63,431) within municipal limits. The municipality consists of 18 members, of whom 6 are official, and 12 elected by the ratepayers.

Muwánah.—North-eastern *tahsíl* of Meerut (Mírath) District,

North-Western Provinces, lying along the west bank of the Ganges, and including the ancient city of Hastínapur. Area, 431 square miles, of which 257 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 145,496; land revenue, £26,622; total Government revenue, £29,290; rental paid by cultivators, £48,939; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 1s. 11⅛d.

Muzaffarábád.—Town in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Punjab. Lat. 34° 24′ N., long. 73° 22′ E. Stands at the confluence of the Jhelum with the Kishen Ganga, just beyond the Hazára border. Important as commanding the entrance of the BARAMULA PASS. Ferries over both rivers. Fort built by Aurangzeb, and subsequently replaced by a stronger one under the Afghán Governor, Ata Muhammad.

Muzaffargarh.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the Punjab, lying between 29° 1′ and 30° 46′ 45″ N. lat., and between 70° 33′ and 71° 49′ E. long. Area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract of 1878, 2954 square miles; population in 1868, 295,547 persons. Muzaffargarh forms the south-western District of the Múltán Division. It is bounded on the north by the Districts of Derá Ismáil Khán and Jhang; on the west by the river Indus; and on the east and south-east by the Chenáb. The administrative headquarters are at the town of MUZAFFARGARH.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Muzaffargarh occupies the extreme southern apex of the Sind Ságar Doáb, the wedge-shaped tract between the Indus and the Five Rivers or Panjnad. The District stretches northward from their confluence in a narrow ridge of land, gradually widening for about 120 miles, until at its northern border a distance of some 55 miles intervenes between their channels. Its shape is therefore that of a tolerably regular triangle, with the base resting against the cis-Indus portion of Derá Ismáil Khán. In the northern half of the District, the wild *thal* or central desert of the Sind Ságar Doáb extends for a considerable distance down its midst. This arid plateau, rising like a backbone in the centre of the wedge, has a width of 40 miles in the extreme north, and terminates abruptly on either side in a high bank, about 7 miles from the present bed of the Indus, and 3 miles from that of the Chenáb. As the rivers converge, the *thal* gradually contracts, until, about 10 miles south of Muzaffargarh town, it disappears altogether. Though apparently an elevated tableland, it is really composed of separate sandhills, whose intermediate valleys lie at a lower level than that of the Indus, and have at times been flooded by the bursting of the western barrier ridge or bank. Scattered amid this waste of sand-heaps, a few good plots of land occur, which the ceaseless industry of the Ját cultivators has converted into smiling fields of grain. The border strips which fringe the *thal* towards the rivers are for

the most part under cultivation; but wide reaches of barren soil, especially on the Indus side, often separate the tilled patches with towering growth of jungle grass, glistening stretches of white saline efflorescence, or stunted shrubs of tamarisk. South of the *thal* plateau, the space between the rivers contracts to a width of 20 miles, more or less subject to inundation from side to side. The middle tract lies sufficiently high, as a rule, to escape excessive flooding, while it remains, on the other hand, within the reach of easy irrigation. This portion of the District, accordingly, consists of a rich and productive country, thickly studded with prosperous villages. But in the extreme south, and in some other parts, the floods from the two rivers spread at times across the whole intervening tract. On abating, they leave luxuriant pasturage for cattle; and if their subsidence takes place sufficiently early, magnificent crops of wheat, peas, and gram are raised in the cultivated portion. The towns stand on high sites or are protected by embankments; but the villages scattered over the lowlands are exposed to annual inundations, during which the people abandon their grass-built huts, and take refuge on wooden platforms attached to each house, where they remain night and day till the floods subside. Numerous pools, supplied from the flooded rivers, cover the surface of the District. The Indus and the Chenáb once united their streams far to the north of their present confluence. In the time of Timur, the junction took place at Uchh, 60 miles above the existing confluence at Mithankot. Throughout the cold weather, large herds of camels, belonging chiefly to the Povinda merchants of Afghánistán, graze upon the sandy waste of the *thal.*

History.—Muzaffargarh District hardly possesses any distinct annals of its own, having always formed part of the Múltán Province, whose fortunes it has invariably followed. During the Mughal period, it was included in Akbar's *sarkár* of Múltán; and when the Duráni empire superseded that of Delhi in North-Western India, Muzaffargarh fell to the new power, with the rest of the Province. Its last Muhammadan ruler, Muzaffar Khán, the Afghán Governor of Múltán under the Duráni dynasty, gave his name to the present headquarters town, which he enlarged and surrounded with a wall. The southern and middle portions of the District, however, were in the hands of the Nawáb of Baháwalpur, only the extreme north being held by Muzaffar Khán. During the long struggle between the Afghán Governor and the Síkhs (*see* MULTAN DISTRICT), the Muzaffargarh peasantry suffered much in the cause of their ruler; but in 1818, the army of Ranjít Sinh, advancing for their final attack upon Multán, stormed the two towns of Muzaffargarh and Khángarh. Thenceforth the northern portion of the District passed under the rule of the Síkhs, and was administered by Diwán Sáwan Mall and his son Múlráj. The southern half, however,

still remained in the hands of the Baháwalpur Nawábs, who held it as independent chiefs up to the conquest of Derá Ghází Khán by Ranjít Sinh. But after that date they accepted a lease of the whole District from the Síkh Mahárájá; and the Nawáb failing to remit the annual amount in 1830, Ranjít Sinh sent General Ventura to take charge of Derá Ghází Khán, and the river Sutlej (Satlaj) was accepted as the boundary between the Síkh empire and the territories of Baháwalpur. The Síkh supremacy remained unshaken until after the Múltán rebellion and the annexation of the Punjab in 1849. At the first distribution of the Province for administrative purposes by the British authorities, the town of Khángarh, 11 miles south of Muzaffargarh, was selected as headquarters of a District. Before the close of the year, however, the chosen site was carried away by a flood upon the Chenáb; and as Khángarh was also situated at an inconvenient distance from the main road between Múltán and Derá Ghází Khán, the headquarters were fixed at Muzaffargarh. Subsequent transfers of territory to and from Leiah and Jhang brought the District into its present shape in 1861; and the name was then changed to that which it now bears.

Population.—The Census of 1855 returned the total number of inhabitants in Khángarh District, as then composed, at 211,920. The territorial changes of 1859 and 1861 resulted in a net addition of 194 square miles, with a population of 39,184 persons. The total population of the area now composing Muzaffargarh District accordingly amounted in 1855 to 251,104 souls. The Census of 1868 showed an increase of 44,443 persons, or 17·69 per cent. The last-named enumeration extended over an area calculated at 3022 square miles (the Parliamentary Abstract, 1878, as has already been stated, gives the present area as 2954 square miles), and disclosed a total population of 295,547 persons, distributed among 594 villages or townships, and inhabiting an aggregate of 65,135 houses. From these data the following averages may be calculated:—Persons per square mile, 98; villages per square mile, 0·19; houses per square mile, 21·52; persons per village, 497; persons per house, 4·54. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 162,122; females, 133,425; proportion of males, 54·85 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years —males, 58,293; females, 46,718; total children, 105,011, or 35·5 per cent. of the population. As regards religious distinctions, the Hindus numbered 36,748, or 12·43 per cent.; Muhammadans, 249,865, or 84·54 per cent.; Síkhs, 2571, or 0·87 per cent.; and 'others,' 6363, or 2·15 per cent. Among the Hindus and Síkhs, the only castes largely represented are the Bráhmans (1360) and the Aroras (31,308). The principal Muhammadan tribes include 7180 Sayyids, 1868 Patháns, 41,737 Baluchis, 7730 Rájputs, and 158,954 Játs, the most numerous class in Muzaffargarh. Throughout the District, the Hindus hold a

position of complete social insignificance, with the exception of the Aroras (Karárs), who form the shopkeeping class in all the villages, and have done much to develope agriculture by sinking wells. The Sayyids and Patháns rank highest in general estimation, owing to the influence of Muzaffar Khán, who gave estates to many of his compatriots. The Baluchis form the bulk of the population along the Indus, where they cultivate the soil, and also raise large herds of cattle and camels; many of them bear a bad reputation for predatory habits. The mass of the agricultural community, especially in the eastern portion of the District, consists of Játs, but the word here hardly possesses any ethnical significance, being indiscriminately applied to all the lower cultivating castes. The peasantry are almost without exception deeply immersed in debt; and their expensive customs with regard to marriages and funerals lead them to borrow from the money-lenders in the towns, and so contract obligations which they are unable to fulfil in a lifetime. The District contains only 1 town with a population exceeding 5000 — namely, KOT ADU or Parhar (5552), an unimportant agricultural centre. MUZAFFARGARH, the headquarters station, has only 3136 inhabitants, and possesses little trade or manufactures. KHANGARH (4387) does a considerable export business with Afghánistán and Sind.

Agriculture.—The area under cultivation in 1875 amounted to 408,665 acres, of which 288,579 acres were irrigated from canals or wells, while 120,086 acres depended for water supply upon the natural inundations of the Indus and the Chenáb. The rainfall is so slight that no crops can be grown on the strength of its precarious aid. Water, however, is everywhere plentiful, except on the high *thal* in the north. A network of canals and minor distributaries intersects the whole lowland, worked by Persian wheels where the banks are high, but used for inundation during the floods. The District, indeed, suffers, not from want of water, but from want of proper control over it. The canals have all been dug by the people themselves, and existed for the most part before the British annexation. A small committee, elected by the contributories, manages the clearing of the channels and other similar duties, under Government supervision. The staple crops include wheat and barley for the *rabí* or spring harvest, and various millets for the *kharíf* or autumn harvest. In the northern tract, a small portion of indigo, cotton, and sugar-cane is added; in the south, a greater quantity of these commercial crops is raised; while in the central belt, around Khángarh, they are produced in much larger proportion, with a corresponding diminution in the cereals. The following list shows the area under each crop at the last settlement of the land revenue:—*Rabí*—wheat, 201,662 acres; barley, 11,031; peas, 24,507; gram, 12,500; tobacco, 1126; oil-seeds, 11,265: *Kharíf*—rice, 10,211; *joár*, 21,939;

bájra, 17,732; linseed, 3700; cotton, 29,267; indigo, 20,744; and sugar-cane, 4280 acres. Of these, indigo forms the most lucrative crop. The average out-turn per acre was returned as follows in 1874-75:—Indigo, 22 lbs.; cotton, 50 lbs.; wheat, 914 lbs.; inferior grains, 634 lbs. Most of the land is cultivated by the proprietors in person; and rents, where they exist, are almost universally payable in kind. The class of day-labourers consists mainly of wandering families from Khorasan (Khurásán), who immigrate temporarily for the winter, and leave for their own homes as soon as spring sets in. They receive their wages in grain at rates returned at 20 to 24 lbs. per diem; and these rates do not appear to have risen of late years. Prices of food grains ruled as follows in 1873:—Wheat, 20 *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 7d. per cwt.; barley, 25 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 6d. per cwt.; gram, 18 *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 3d. per cwt.; *joár*, 24 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 8d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The mercantile classes of Muzaffargarh display great apathy with regard to distant trade. The carrying business east and west lies entirely in the hands of the Povindah merchants of Khurásán (Korassan). The chief articles of export include wheat, sugar, cotton, indigo, and *ghí*, which are sold by the cultivators to the petty dealers in the villages, who again dispose of them to the Povindahs. The only town with any commercial pretensions is Khairpur in the extreme south. Camels form the usual means of transport, wheeled vehicles being practically unknown. Snuff is manufactured throughout the District generally, but more especially at Alípur, whence considerable quantities find their way to the Deraját and Baháwalpur. The only other manufactures consist of country cloth and counterpanes. The Múltán and Derá Ghází Khán telegraph line crosses the District, but has no station within its borders; nor is there any railway. The principal road is that from Múltán to Derá Ghází Khán, crossing the Chenáb at Sher Sháh ferry, and running through the headquarters station. The District contains altogether 7 miles of metalled and 410 miles of unmetalled road.

Administration.—The District staff ordinarily comprises a Deputy Commissioner, 1 Assistant, and 1 extra-Assistant Commissioner, together with the usual fiscal, medical, and constabulary officials. The imperial revenue in 1872-73 amounted to £63,543, of which sum the land tax contributed £58,736. The only other item of importance was that of stamps. The revenue of the old Khángarh District in 1851-52 amounted to only £49,563. Muzaffargarh contained in 1876 a total of 10 civil and revenue judges. During the same year, the imperial police force numbered 318 officers and men, besides a municipal constabulary of 43 men. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 361 men, being at the

rate of 1 policeman to every 11·3 square miles of area and every 818 of the population. The District jail at Muzaffargarh received in 1875 a total number of 589 prisoners, with a daily average of 29. Education still remains in a very backward state. The total number of children receiving instruction in 1875 was 1974, and the cost of the schools was returned at £640. As usual in the Punjab, the Hindus contributed a far larger proportion of scholars, relatively to their numbers, than the Muhammadans, the former having 858 pupils as against 1107 of the latter. For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is subdivided into 3 *tahsíls*, having their head-quarters at Sanáwan in the north, Muzaffargarh in the centre, and Alípur in the south. Municipalities have been established at the seven towns or villages of Muzaffargarh, Khángarh, Shahr Sultán, Jatoi, Alípur, Khairpur, and Sítpur. Their aggregate income in 1875-76 amounted to £1624, or an average of 2s. 0⅛d. per head of the population (16,147) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The District is unusually hot and dry, but no record of temperature exists. The average annual rainfall for the seven years ending 1872-73 amounted to only 5·9 inches, the maximum during that period being 12·4 inches in 1872-73, and the minimum, 1·2 inches in 1866-67. Remittent and intermittent fevers and skin diseases prevail very widely. Small-pox is now uncommon, and cholera all but unknown. The total number of deaths reported in 1872 amounted to 6679, or 22 per thousand; but these figures cannot be accepted as trustworthy. Four Government charitable dispensaries, at Muzaffargarh, Alípur, Khángarh, and Sanáwan, afforded relief in 1875 to 17,963 persons, of whom 340 were in-patients.

Muzaffargarh.—Central *tahsíl* of Muzaffargarh District, Punjab; situated between 29° 40′ and 30° 16′ N. lat., and between 70° 52′ and 71° 20′ 30″ E. long.; consisting of the middle belt between the Chenáb and the Indus, south of the *thal*, and fertilized by the annual inundations of both rivers. Area, 911 square miles; pop. (1868), 130,724; persons per square mile, 143.

Muzaffargarh.—Municipality and administrative headquarters of Muzaffargarh District, Punjab. Pop. (1868), 3136. Situated in lat. 30° 4′ 30″ N., and long. 71° 14′ E., on the road from Múltán to Derá Ghází Khán, 6 miles from the present cold-weather bed of the Chenáb. Derives its name from Muzaffar Khán, Afghán Governor of Múltán, who fixed his residence here about 1795. No manufactures; little trade; few influential residents. Importance purely official. Court-house, sessions-house, treasury, *tahsíli*, police station, post office, *sarái*, dispensary, school-house. Clean and healthy; handsome public garden. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £343, or 2s. 7⅞d. per head of population (2596) within municipal limits.

Muzaffarkhána. — *Tahsíl* or subdivision of Sultánpur District, Oudh; bounded north by Rám Sanehi Ghát and Bíkápur *tahsíls*, east by Sultánpur, south by Ráipur, and west by Salon and Mahárájganj. Muzaffarkhána comprises the 3 *parganás* of Isauli, Jagdíspur, and Gaura Jamún. Area, 394 square miles, of which 224 are cultivated; pop. (1869), 247,726, viz. 215,237 Hindus and 32,489 Musalmáns; average density of population, 432 per square mile. Number of villages or townships (*mauzás*), 440.

Muzaffarnagar.—A British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 29° 11′ 30″ and 29° 45′ 15″ N. lat., and between 77° 3′ 45″ and 78° 10′ 45″ E. long. Area, according to the Parliamentary Abstract of 1878, 1659 square miles; population in 1872, 690,107 persons. Muzaffarnagar is a District of the Meerut (Mírath) Division. It is bounded on the north by Sahåranpur; on the west by the river Jumna (Jamuná); on the south by Meerut; and on the east by the Ganges. The administrative headquarters are at the town of MUZAFFARNAGAR.

Physical Aspects. — The District of Muzaffarnagar lies near the northern extremity of the Doáb or great alluvial plain between the Ganges and the Jumna, and shares to a large extent in the general monotony of that level region. Its central portion consists of an elevated plateau, cut into three unequal divisions by the rivers Hindan and Káli Nadi, whose confluence takes place near the southern boundary of the District. The first of these divisions, that lying close along the bank of the Ganges, is covered in its northern part by one continuous swamp, which results from the overflow of the little river Soláni and percolation from the Ganges Canal. South of this marshy tract stretches the *khádar* or low-lying valley of the Ganges, over which the sacred stream runs freely in every direction, frequently changing its course, and rendering cultivation hazardous or impracticable. At places patches of tillage may be seen scattered amid the rank vegetation with which the *khádar* is overrun, but the greater part is densely covered by coarse grasses, interspersed with occasional clumps of tamarisk. This lowland valley is succeeded on the west by the first of the three central plateaux, extending as far as the Káli Nadi. It is reached by a low terrace, deeply cut into ravines by the surface drainage, and of little agricultural value. The upland region is naturally sandy and unfertile; but it is watered and enriched by the main line of the Ganges Canal, which enters the District from SAHARANPUR, and gives off the Anúpshahr branch near the village of Jauli. Under the influence of irrigation, the soil is rapidly improving, and the character of the crops has been greatly raised. The next division, passing westward, is the triangular upland enclosed between the valleys of the Hindan and the Káli Nadi. These minor streams flow in deep channels, and are useless for

irrigation; but the soil is naturally fertile, and the water obtained from wells is sufficient to turn it into a highly cultivated tract. The westernmost plateau is that which stretches between the Hindan and the Jumna, and is watered by the Eastern Jumna Canal. In the neighbourhood of the Jumna, much of the land is covered with *dhák* jungle, through which occasional oases of light sandy soil crop out in little elevated bosses; but elsewhere the labour of the villagers and the spread of irrigation have been successful in inducing a high state of cultivation. On the whole, although Muzaffarnagar is not so flourishing as the rich Districts to the south, its condition is far above the average of Indian rural tracts. In the north-eastern corner, however, the spread of swamps is rapidly driving back the cultivator, whose place is usurped by the wild boar and the hog-deer. Measures are being taken for the reclamation of this neglected region by the deposit of silt, which will doubtless prove exceptionally fertile, owing to the mass of organic débris brought down to it by the flooded Soláni.

History. — Tradition represents Muzaffarnagar as having formed a portion of the Pándava kingdom which had its capital at Hastinápur in the adjoining District of MEERUT, and at a more historical date as being included among the dominions of Prithwi Ráj, the Chauhán ruler of Delhi. Authentic history first shows us the country around Muzaffarnagar at the time of the Musalmán conquest in the 13th century, and it remained a dependency of the various dynasties who ruled at Delhi until the final dissolution of their empire. The earliest wave of colonists probably consisted of Aryan settlers, Bráhman and Rájput. They were succeeded by the Játs, who occupied the whole southern portion of the District, where their descendants still form the chief landowning class. At a later date, the Gújars took possession of the poorer tracts which the Játs had left unoccupied, and they too are still to be found as *zamíndárs*. Finally, with the Muhammadan irruptions, bodies of Shaikhs, Sayyids, and Patháns entered Muzaffarnagar, and parcelled out amongst themselves the remainder of the territory. Timur paid one of his sanguinary visits to the District in 1399, when all the infidel inhabitants whom he could capture were mercilessly put to the sword. We get no other glimpse of the country or its inhabitants until the reign of Akbar, when it was included in the *sarkár* of Sahâranpur. During the 17th century, the Sayyid family of Bárha rose to great eminence, and filled many important offices about the court. Their ancestors are said to have settled in Muzaffarnagar about the year 1350, and to have enjoyed the patronage of the Sayyid dynasty which ruled at Delhi in the succeeding century. In 1414, Sultán Khizr Khán conferred the control of Sahâranpur on Sayyid Salím, the chief of their fraternity; and from that time onward they rose rapidly to territorial power and court influence. Under Akbar and his successors,

various branches of the Bárha stock became the leading landowners in the Province. They were celebrated as daring military leaders, employed by the Emperors on all services of danger and enterprise, from the Indus to the Nerbudda (Narbadá). It was mainly through their aid that the victory of Agra was won in 1707, by which Bahádur Sháh made good his claim to the imperial title. The part which they bore in the revolution of 1712, when Farrukh Siyyár was elevated to the throne, belongs to the general history of India. As a reward for the important services rendered on that occasion, Sayyid Abdullá was appointed Wazír of the Empire, and Sayyid Husáin Alí was made commander-in-chief. On their fall in 1724, the power of the Bárha family began to wane, until, in 1737, they were almost exterminated, on a pretext of rebellious designs, by their inveterate enemy the Wazír Kamar-ud-dín. During the whole of the disastrous 18th century, Muzaffarnagar suffered from the same Síkh incursions which devastated the remainder of the Upper Doáb. The Síkhs were assisted in their raids by the Gújars, whose roving semi-nomad life made them ever ready to join in rebellion against the Government of the time. As regularly as the crops were cut, Síkh chieftains poured their predatory hordes into the Doáb, and levied an organized black-mail. The country was divided between them into regular circuits, and each chieftain collected requisitions from his own circuit only. It was during this period of unsettled and anarchic insecurity that those mud-forts began to spring up which became in time so characteristic of the Upper Doáb. In 1788, the District fell into the hands of the Marhattás, under whom the famous military adventurer, George Thomas, was appointed 'Warden of the Marches,' and endeavoured with some success to prevent the constant raids across the Jumna. The Begam Samru of Sardhána in MEERUT DISTRICT held large possessions in the southern *parganás* at the end of the last century. After the fall of ALIGARH in 1803, the whole Doáb as far north as the Siwálik Hills came, without a blow, under the power of the British, and Muzaffarnagar was at first attached to Moradábád. A final Síkh invasion occurred in the following year, encouraged by the advance of Holkar's forces; but it was promptly suppressed by Colonel Burn, who drove the intruders back across the river. In 1804, Muzaffarnagar was included in the new District of Saháranpur; and in 1824, the nucleus of the present District was formed by the creation of a sub-Collectorship with jurisdiction over 13 out of the existing 17 *parganás*. No events of importance disturbed the peace of Muzaffarnagar for many years after the conquest. The construction of the great canals gave an impetus to agriculture, and the security of British rule allowed the cultivators to repair their fortunes, which had suffered greatly during the long anarchy of the Síkh and Marhattá struggle.

The first incident which broke the course of civil administration was the Mutiny of 1857. On the news of the outbreak at MEERUT, the Magistrate of Muzaffarnagar, influenced by exaggerated reports of a general rising throughout the Doáb, issued orders that all the public offices should be closed. This measure naturally produced a general impression that British rule was suspended. At first, there was no open mutiny, and the semblance of government was kept up, but plunder and incendiarism went on unmolested. At length, on the 21st of June, the 4th Irregulars rose in revolt, and murdered their commanding officer, as well as another European, after which they marched off to Shámli. Five days later, a party of the 3rd Cavalry arrived at the town; and on the first of July, Mr. R. M. Edwards came in from Sahāranpur with a body of Gurkhás, and took charge of the administration. Vigorous measures were at once adopted to repress crime and collect revenue, the good effects of which became quickly apparent. The western *parganás*, however, remained in open revolt; and the rebels of Thána Bhawán attacked Shámli, where they massacred 113 persons in cold blood. Reinforcements shortly after arrived from Meerut, and Thána Bhawán, being evacuated by the rebels, had its walls and gates razed to the ground. After this occurrence, no notable event took place, though the troops were kept perpetually on the move, marching back and forwards along the bank of the Ganges, and watching the mutineers on the opposite shore. Order was restored long before the end of the Mutiny.

Population.—In 1848, the population of Muzaffarnagar was returned at 537,594; giving a density of 333 to the square mile. By 1853, the number had increased to 672,861, or 409 persons to the square mile. The Census of 1865 showed a further increase to a total of 682,212 persons, or 414 to the square mile. In 1872, the population was returned at 690,082, or (taking the area of the District, as then calculated, at 1645 square miles) an average of 419 inhabitants to the square mile. At the last-named date, there were 883 inhabited villages in the District, with an aggregate of 155,012 houses. These figures show the following averages:—Villages per square mile, 0·5; houses per square mile, 93; inhabitants per village, 782; do. per house, 4·4. Classified according to sex, there were—males, 375,608; females, 314,474; proportion of males, 54·4 per cent. This excessive preponderance of males must be set down, as in so many other cases, to the former prevalence of female infanticide, which Government has done all in its power to suppress. In 1874, no less than 94 villages were still on the 'proclaimed list' under the Infanticide Act. Classified according to age, there were, under 15 years—males, 150,352; females, 117,497; total children, 267,849, or 38·81 per cent. of the population. As regards religious distinctions, there were 498,950 Hindus and 191,097 Musal-

máns, besides 35 Christians and 'others.' The percentage of Hindus in the total population was 72·3, and that of Musalmáns, 27·7; or, more roughly, 3 followers of Islám to every 8 Hindus. Of the four great classes into which the Hindus are divided, the Bráhmans numbered 40,654. The Rájputs are numerically a small body, reckoned at only 15,470 persons, but they hold large landed property in the District. The Banias are unusually numerous, being returned at 42,199. Many of them are Jains, and they form a wealthy and prosperous mercantile community. The 'other castes' are set down at a total of 400,627, composing the immense majority of the population. The Chamárs head the list, as usual in the Doáb, with 96,921 persons; their position is still scarcely removed from that of rural serfs, and they form the labouring class in the District. Next come the Játs (66,759), who hold a large portion of the soil as *zamíndárs*, and are an active, enterprising, and intelligent tribe. The Gújars (24,899) and Tagas (11,947) are also among the landowners in Muzaffarnagar. Of the Musalmán population, the Shaikhs are far the most numerous, numbering 167,075; most of them are the descendants of converts from Hinduism. The Sayyids, once the dominant race, now amount in all to 11,999 persons, and are rapidly sinking in the social scale, through improvidence and bad management, which have led them to mortgage or resign their estates to the Banias. In 1872, 438,111 persons were returned as being engaged in agriculture, and 251,971 persons as otherwise employed; but these statistics are probably untrustworthy. There were 13 towns in 1872 with a population exceeding 5000 — namely, KAIRANA, 17,742; KHANDLA, 11,026; MUZAFFARNAGAR, 10,793; SHAMLI, 9177; THANA BHAWAN, 7486; JALALABAD, 6904; KHATAULI, 6409; BUDHANA, 6162; JANSATH, 6117; MIRANPUR, 5924; CHARTHAWAL, 5121; GANGIRU, 5117; JHANJHANA, 5116. Most of these, however, are rather overgrown villages than towns in the strict sense, as the greater part of their inhabitants subsist by agriculture or its subsidiary operations. Hindí is spoken in the *khádar*, and Urdu by the people of the uplands.

Agriculture.—Muzaffarnagar is essentially an agricultural District, but tillage has not yet been carried to so high a pitch as in some other portions of the Doáb. In 1871, out of a total area amounting to 1,033,468 acres, 629,735 acres were under cultivation. In the *rabí* harvest, the chief crops are wheat, barley, millet, and pulse. The *kharíf* harvest includes some of these grains, besides sugar-cane, cotton, and indigo; it is the most important both as regards the extent of cultivation and the value of crops. The best lands produce two harvests in the year. In 1871, there were 224,812 acres under wheat and barley, 54,154 under *joár* and *bájra*, 44,757 under rice,

32,781 under cotton; and 42,829 acres were planted with sugar-cane. The use of manure is increasing. Irrigation is widely practised both from wells and canals. In 1871, no fewer than 227,398 acres were watered from one or other of the great canals. Under their influence there has been a steady increase in the cultivation of the superior crops, such as cereals, sugar-cane, and cotton, to the exclusion of the poorer pulses and millets. Some harm has been done by over-saturation and the efflorescence of the destructive *reh* salt; but this is now being remedied by a Government drainage system. The condition of the peasantry is comfortable, and the village communities are prosperous and intelligent, especially among the Játs and Gújars. Most of the land is cultivated by husbandmen having rights of occupancy; while the number of tenants-at-will is rapidly declining under the provisions of recent legislation. There is a growing tendency for separate ownership to replace the old communal system. Rents are more frequently paid in kind than in cash. In the latter case, they often vary with the crop. As a whole, they run from 7s. 6d. to 13s. 6d. per acre for irrigated lands, and from 2s. 3d. to 5s. 3d. per acre for unirrigated lands. The average out-turn of sugar-cane per acre is about 15 cwts., valued at £7, 4s.; that of cotton, about 1 cwt. 2 qrs., valued at £2; and that of wheat, about 9 cwts., valued at £1, 10s. Wages and prices have both been on the increase since the Mutiny, probably keeping pace with one another. In 1875, bricklayers, carpenters, and smiths received 9d. a day; unskilled labourers, 6d. to 7½d.; coolies, 2¼d.; boys, 1⅞d. Agricultural labourers are generally paid in kind. Prices ruled as follows in 1873:—Wheat, 24 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 8d. per cwt.; gram, 30 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 8¾d. per cwt.; barley and unhusked rice, 40 *sers* per rupee, or 2s. 9½d. per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—The Ganges and Jumna (Jamuná) occasionally shift their channels, and thus cause destruction of villages on their banks; while the Hindan and the Káli Nadi are both liable to floods, which, in the ill-defined ravine of the latter stream, often effect considerable damage. Muzaffarnagar suffered also, before the opening of the canals, from famines, caused by drought; but this source of distress has been greatly mitigated, and its danger for the future minimized, by the spread of irrigation. The scarcity of 1860-61 pressed less severely on this District than on many others; and in 1868-69, the difference was still more marked. Large stores of grain were hoarded in the grain-pits, and the existence of these supplies contributed to keep down prices. But at the close of the year 1868, wheat had risen to 9 *sers* per rupee, or 12s. 5¼d. per cwt., and measures of relief became necessary. From December 1868 till October 1869, an average of 195 persons were daily employed upon famine works; while, for the greater portion of that time, 53 persons received gratuitous relief daily.

Nevertheless, grain was abundant, and continued to be exported in large quantities; and such distress as existed was due rather to the external demand than to failing supplies.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—Muzaffarnagar is almost entirely an agricultural District, and its trade is accordingly confined to the raw material which it produces. Jalálábád is the great grain-mart of the surrounding country. In 1870-71, it was estimated that about 184,931 cwts. of rice, 54,889 cwts. of cotton, and 1,084,401 cwts. of wheat and barley were exported from the District. In average years, Muzaffarnagar can spare about 80,000 tons of food grains for exportation. The means of communication, though not quite so good as in the region immediately to the south, are yet ample for the present resources. The Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway runs through the heart of the District, and has two stations within its boundaries—one at Khátauli and the other at the headquarters town. There are 60 miles of 'first-class,' 200 miles of 'second-class,' and 120 miles of 'third-class' roads. Much traffic also passes by the Ganges Canal, on which Khátauli is the chief commercial depôt.

Administration.—In 1860, the total revenue of Muzaffarnagar District was returned at £140,785; of which £101,616, or more than two-thirds, was derived from the land tax, and about £20,000 from canal collections. At the same date, the total expenditure was £37,886, or little more than one-fourth of the revenue. In 1873, the total receipts had risen to £179,539; of which sum the land tax contributed £122,694, or again rather more than two-thirds of the whole; while the canal collections had increased to £36,479. Meanwhile, the expenditure had reached the total of £58,682, or nearly one-third of the revenue. Though the land revenue has been constantly rising of late years, yet it has pressed lightly on the cultivators, as the increase of value, owing to irrigation, has more than kept pace with the higher rates of assessment; and further improvement may be expected in future years. In 1875, the District was administered by 3 covenanted civilians; and contained 7 magisterial and 8 revenue courts. The regular police numbered 723 men of all grades in 1874, being 1 policeman to every 2·23 square miles and every 954 inhabitants; the total cost of maintenance was £8098. This force was supplemented by 1239 village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), whose maintenance entailed an expenditure of £4518 per annum. The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 1962 men, maintained at a cost of £12,616; being an average of 1 policeman to every 0·83 square mile and every 351 inhabitants, and an average cost of $4\frac{3}{14}$d. per head of the population. The number of persons convicted of all offences in 1874 was 903, or 1 conviction for every 764 inhabitants. The criminal administration of Muzaffarnagar was formerly beset with

great difficulties, on account of the numerous gipsy communities who frequented the District; but a more vigorous system at present exists, and the worst clan of vagrants has been settled in a colony at Bidauli, under police surveillance. There is one jail, the average daily number of prisoners in which was 94 in 1870, or 0·013 per cent. of the population. The total number of prisoners admitted was 473. The cost per inmate was £6, 1s. 0⅞d., and the average earnings of each inmate amounted to £1, 7s. 2⅜d. Education is making a steady advance. In 1860, there were 5159 children under instruction. In 1870, the number of schools was returned at 320, and the pupils at 6507; while the sum expended upon education was £2282. In 1874, the schools numbered 443, and the pupils 7401; while the sum devoted to education had risen to £3148. The District is subdivided into 4 *tahsíls* and 17 *parganás*, with an aggregate in 1870 of 1198 estates, owned by 2227 registered proprietors or coparceners: average land revenue paid by each estate, £87, 6s.; by each proprietor, £46, 10s. The District contains 4 municipalities—MUZAFFARNAGAR, SHAMLI, KANDHLA, and KAIRANA. Their aggregate revenue in 1875-76 amounted to £4104, and their expenditure to £3278; the average incidence of municipal taxation was 1s. 2¾d. per head of their population.

Sanitary Aspects.—The climate of Muzaffarnagar is comparatively cool, owing to the proximity of the hills. The average heat is decidedly greater than that of Saháranpur, though perceptibly less than at Meerut; but no thermometrical observations are available. The total rainfall was 38·3 inches in 1867-68, 17·3 inches in 1868-69 (the year of scarcity), 20·8 inches in 1869-70, and 39·4 inches in 1870-71. The principal endemic diseases are malarious fevers, dysentery, and diarrhœa. Fever also occurs in an epidemic form; and cholera and small-pox frequently visit the District. In 1874, the total number of deaths reported was 15,704, or 22·75 per thousand of the population; and of these, 12,955 were due to fever alone. The cattle are occasionally attacked by epidemics of rinderpest, pleuro-pneumonia, and foot-and-mouth disease. In 1867, it was computed that 10 per cent. of the cattle in Muzaffarnagar died from disease.

Muzaffarnagar.—North-eastern *tahsíl* of Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces; stretching from the Ganges beyond the Hindan, intersected by the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, and watered by the Ganges Canal. Area, 457 square miles, of which 306 are cultivated; pop. (1872), 174,402; land revenue, £29,968; total Government revenue, £34,826; rental paid by cultivators, £75,869; incidence of Government revenue per acre, 2s. 0½d.

Muzaffarnagar.—Municipal town and administrative headquarters of Muzaffarnagar District, North-Western Provinces; stands in lat. 29° 28′ 10″ N., and long. 77° 44′ E., on the military road from Meerut to

Landaur, surrounded by highly cultivated crops. Pop. (1872), 10,793, consisting of 6560 Hindus, 4205 Muhammadans, and 28 Christians. Station on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. Founded by a son of Muzaffar Khán Khánjahán, in the reign of the Emperor Sháh Jahán, about 1633. Closely built, and crowded with small lanes. District court, *tahsíli*, jail, schools, telegraph office, dispensary. Formerly notorious for fever, but great sanitary improvements have lately been effected. Trade in agricultural produce. Municipal revenue (1875-76), £1098; from taxes, £786, or 1s. 5⅜d. per head of population within municipal limits.

Muzaffarpur.—District in Patná Division, Bengal; formed out of the great District of Tirhut on the 1st January 1875. Extends from 25° 30′ to 26° 51′ 30″ N. lat., and from 84° 55′ 30″ to 85° 58′ E. long. The geographical and general aspects of Muzaffarpur will be dealt with under TIRHUT DISTRICT, which was not divided until after the date when my materials were collected. Tirhut continued until 1875 the largest and most populous District of Lower Bengal. Of its 6 Subdivisions, the three eastern were formed into the new District of DARBHANGAH at the commencement of that year. The three western—viz. Muzaffarpur, Hájipur, and Tájpur—were constituted into the District of Muzaffarpur; bounded on the north by Nepál, on the east by Darbhangah, on the south by Patná, and on the west by Sáran and Champáran. Area, according to the Parliamentary Return for 1876-77, 3335 square miles; pop. (1872), 2,188,382 persons; recent transfers have affected the area and population. A revised Census statement up to 1st January 1880, returns the area of Muzaffarpur at 3000 square miles, and the population at 2,245,408. Classified according to sex, there were 1,107,016 males, and 1,138,392 females; proportion of males, 49·3 per cent. Classified according to religion, the Hindus are returned at 1,965,723; Muhammadans, 279,193; Christians, 422, and 'others,' 70. Total number of villages and towns, 4385. Chief town and District headquarters, MUZAFFARPUR. Cultivated area, 1,435,859 acres, or 2243½ square miles, of which 762,830 acres, or just one-half, are under rice. Muzaffarpur suffered severely from the famines of 1866 and 1874, and the dense pressure of the population on the soil formed one of the principal difficulties in dealing with these calamities. In 1866, the suffering was greatest during July, August, and September, the price of rice varying from 7 to 5½ *sers* per rupee, or from 15s. 9d. to £1, 0s. 9d. per cwt. In 1874, the rates reached 15s. 8d. per cwt. The Bengal Administration Report for 1878–79 returns the revenue of the District in that year at £165,447, of which £97,633 was derived from the land.

Muzaffarpur.—Chief town and administrative headquarters of Muzaffarpur District, Bengal; situated on the right or south bank of

the Little Gandak, in lat. 26° 7′ 23″ N., and long. 85° 26′ 52″ E. Pop. (1872), 38,223, classified as follows:—Hindus, 27,320; Muhammadans, 10,671; Christians, 223; 'others,' 9. Municipal income (1876-77), £2908; expenditure, £3165; average incidence of taxation, 8⅛d. per head of population within municipal limits. The town is clean, and the streets in many cases broad and well kept, running principally from east to west. There is a good collectorate and court-houses, a jail, dispensary, and several schools, some of the best of which are supported by the Behar Scientific Society and by the Dharma Samáj. The *bázárs* are large, and markets are held daily. Roads run to Hájipur, Lálganj, Rewá *ghát*, Sohánsi *ghát*, Motihári, Sítámarhi, and on to Nepál, Pupri, Kamtaul, Darbhangah, Púsa, and Dalsinhsarái. Considerable trade is carried on by the Little Gandak, which river, if slightly improved, would admit boats of 500 *maunds* or about 20 tons burden, all the year round. Near the court buildings (*kachari*) is the lake or *mán*, which is simply an old bed of the river. To prevent the current from cutting away the ground near the offices, an embankment was thrown across the lake towards Dáúdpur. The river has not been able to force its way into the lake, but it has cut very deeply into the high bank near the circuit-house; and unless it changes its course, or protective works are erected, it will probably in time break through the strip of land which at present intervenes between it and the lake. In 1871, the town suffered much from inundation. The principal religious buildings are two large temples in the centre of the *bázár*, dedicated one to Ráma and his wife Sítá, and the other to Siva.

Muzang.—Southern suburb of Lahore city, Punjab; lying south of Anarkalli, and containing many of the houses belonging to the civil station. Pop. (1868), 8321, of whom 141 were Europeans.

Myaing-ga-le.—Revenue circle in the Hpa-gat township, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Consists of undulating low plains, dotted with precipitous limestone rocks. Annually inundated, being situated between the Bheng-laing river and its tributary the Dún-tha-mil on the west, and the Salwín on the east. Pop. (1876-77), 2553; land revenue, £178, and capitation tax, £292.

Myaing-gyí. — Revenue circle in Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Consists of undulating ground, broken by low valleys and small swamps. Valuable teak forests. Pop. (1876-77), 3374; land revenue, £109, and capitation tax, £136.

Myan-oung. — Township in Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. To the westward, near the Arakan range, the country is mountainous, and produces valuable timber. Between the lower slopes of the hills and the Irawadi, it is low, and was formerly subject to inundation; a large tract, however, is now protected by embankments. Pop. (1876-77), 40,972; gross revenue, £11,590.

Myan-oung.—Town in Henzada District, British Burma; situated in lat. 18° 16′ 50″ N., and long. 95° 22′ 20″ E., on the right bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). Pop. (1876-77), 5859; revenue, £832. Formerly the headquarters of Henzada or Myan-oung District; contains court-houses and the usual public buildings, and is the seat of an Assistant Commissioner. Founded by the Talaings about 1250 A.D., and called by them Ko-dwot. Captured by the Burmese conqueror Alompra in 1754, who gave the town its present name of Myan-oung.

Myan-oung-myoma.—Revenue circle in the Myan-oung township, Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. A well-cultivated tract, chiefly under rice. Pop. (1876-77), 6340.

Mya-pa-daing.—Revenue circle in the Houng-tha-raw township, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. A mountainous tract, having the Dawna range on the east, and the Houng-tha-raw river on the west. Pop. (1876-77), 3705; land revenue, £271, and capitation tax, £350.

Mya-wa-dí. — Revenue circle in the Houng-tha-raw township, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. Consists of a mass of forest-clad hills, some of which attain a great height. Pop. (1876), 2090.

Mya-wa-dí.—Portion of the Kámá township, THAYET DISTRICT, British Burma.

Mye-bún. — Township in Kyouk-hpyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma; comprising the 11 revenue circles of Alay-kywon, Nga-man-rai, Kyat-tseng, Daing-bún, Lek-khúp-pye, Ro, Kún-khyoung, Hnit-moung-gya, Ngwe-tweng-tú, Kúk-ko, and Tsek-kaw. Pop. (1877), 19,607; gross revenue, £7657.

Mye-dai.—Township in Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Lat. 18° 50′ 3″ to 19° 29′ 3″ N., and long. 95° 13′ 30″ to 95° 55′ E.; area, 921 square miles; pop. (1876), 60,700. Bounded on the north by Upper Burma; on the east by the Pegu Yoma range; on the south by Prome District; and on the west by the river Irawadi (Irrawaddy). The cultivated area in 1871-72 was 29,100 acres; gross revenue (1876), £10,277. This township includes 92 registered village tracts, divided into the 13 circles of Mo-goung, Mye-dai-myo-ma, Rwa-toung, Gún-daw, Tham-bhú-la, Teng-daw, Shwe-ban-daw, Myo-hla, Bhwot-lay, Tsheng-dúp, Pya-lo, Pyoung, and Gnyoung-beng-tshiep. On the British annexation of Pegu (1852), Mye-dai was divided into the 3 townships of Gnyoung-beng-tshiep, Nga-taik, and Mye-dai. The first is said to have been founded by a Shan king of Ava in 1438 A.D.; and the family of the Myo-thú-gyí, or revenue officer, is the oldest in the District of Thayet. The total revenue under Burmese rule may be set down at £1729, besides annual 'presents' to the court at Ava. Mye-dai, the

former headquarters of the township, is now superseded by ALLAN-MYO.

Mye-dai-myo-ma.—Revenue circle in the Mye-dai township, Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Extends along the left bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), and, inclusive of Allan-myo, lying towards the south, contained in 1876 a population of 7802. Chief products—rice, sesamum, plantains, maize, and onions; revenue in 1876, £2441.

Myeng-hút.—Revenue circle in the Naaf township, Akyab District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Pop. (1876-77), 5738; gross revenue, £695.

Myeng-wa-toung. — Revenue circle in the Kanoung township, Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Towards the west, the country consists of a series of spurs from the Yoma range; valuable timber abounds, including teak, *pyeng-ma*, *pyeng-gado*, etc. Pop. (1876-77), 4221; gross revenue, £742.

Mye-ní-gún.—Revenue circle in the Tha-htún township, Amherst District, Tenasserim Division, British Burma. The country on the east contains the lower slopes of the Martaban Hills, and is covered with forest; the small stream of the Tha-htún or Tsha traverses the circle from north to south. Pop. (1876-77), 2567; gross revenue, £1357.

Mye-nú.—Revenue circle in the Le-myet-hna township, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 81 square miles; to the eastward the country is low-lying, swampy, and covered with grass and tree forest. Pop. (1876), 7932; gross revenue, £1650.

Myit-ma-kha.—A stream in Prome District, Pegu, British Burma. It flows southward through Henzada District, forming the upper portion of the HLAING.

Myit-ta-ra. — River of Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma; rises in the eastern slopes of the Arakan range, and, after a south-south-east course of about 30 miles, falls into the BASSEIN RIVER by two large mouths nearly 3 miles apart. These can be entered by boats of 5000 bushels burden, and in high winds the southern passage is preferred by native boatmen to the open Bassein channel. About 4 miles inland, the northern mouth receives a large portion of the drainage from the Arakan Hills, brought down by the river Taw-gyí.

Myit-ta-ra.—Revenue circle in the Nga-pú-taw township, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 160 square miles; lying between the Bassein river on the west, and the Arakan range on the east. The country towards the south consists of extensive and highly cultivated plains; in the north, the township is hilly and thickly wooded. The principal river is the MYIT-TA-RA. Pop. (1876), 2301; gross revenue, £942.

Mylapur (*Mailapur* or *Saint Thomé*).—A suburb of the city of

MADRAS. The name is spelt variously—*Mayilápur*, or Peacock Town; *Malaipur*, or Mount Town; *Meliapur*, *Mirapur* (by the Portuguese), and *Meelapor* in the *Tohfatal Majahudin*. It has been suggested that it is the *Malefattan* of the Arabs, but more recent inquirers favour the identification of Negapatam with *Malefattan*. The great Tamil classic, the *Kural*, is said to have been written in Mylapur. A legend relates that Mylapur formed the principal scene of the labours of the Apostle St. Thomas in India. The shrine, regarded as the tomb of the apostle, was visited by various travellers in the 13th and 14th centuries. It attracted the Portuguese to this spot, and gave the Portuguese name to it.

Myl-liem (or *Myliim*). — Petty State in the Khási Hills, Assam. Pop. (1872), 12,266; revenue, £169. The presiding chief, whose title is *Siem*, is named U Hain Mánik. Principal products—rice, millet, sugar-cane, and cinnamon. Iron is found; the manufactures consist of baskets and iron implements.

Myo-dweng.—Revenue circle in the Mo-gnyo township, Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. On the east, the country is hilly and forest-clad, producing valuable teak and other varieties of timber; in the centre and towards the west, the land is level and cultivated at places. Pop. (1876-77), 6244; gross revenue, £970.

Myo-hla.—Revenue circle in Prome District, Pegu Division, British Burma; comprising ten of the old village tracts. Pop. (1876), 2346; gross revenue, £701.

Myo-hla.—Revenue circle in the Mye-dai township, Thayet District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 83 square miles; pop. (1876), 3162; gross revenue, £512.

Myo-houng.—Township and town in Akyab District, British Burma. —*See* MRO-HOUNG.

Myo-thit.—Revenue circle in Kyouk-hpyú District, British Burma. —*See* MRO-THIT.

Myouk-bhet-myo. — Township in Sandoway District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 1454 square miles; pop. (1876), 19,520; gross revenue, £7090. It occupies the whole of the northern portion of Sandoway from the Ma-í river to the Khwet-toung spur, and is for the most part mountainous and forest-clad. In 1875, the area under cultivation was 15,038 acres, or about 23½ square miles; the chief products are rice, tobacco, cotton, sugar-cane, fibres, betel, etc. Tobacco, vegetables, and iron-wood are exported to Kyouk-hpyú; small trade in cattle. The people are principally engaged in agriculture; a little salt is manufactured, and the weaving of cotton cloth for home use is carried on in every house. The only road in the township is the one across the Arakan Yomas to Toung-gúp; communication is maintained by boats.

Myoung-gyí (*Moung-gyee*). — Revenue circle in the Kyan-kheng township, Henzada District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Towards the north-east there is a little rice cultivation, but the rest of the circle is a confused mass of hills covered with teak, *pyeng-gado, eng, pyeng-ma,* and bamboo. The only river is the Tsan-da. Pop. (1876), 2353; gross revenue, £518.

Myoung-mya.—Revenue circle in the township of the same name, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 163 square miles. Except in the extreme north-west corner of the island formed by the Khwe-le, which runs between the Myoung-mya and Thek-ngay-thoung creeks, the surface of the country is undulating. Pop. (1876-77), 6534; gross revenue, £1571.

Myoung-mya. — Seaboard township in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 931 square miles. The coast-line consists of a flat and sandy beach, bordered by grassy plains, varying in width from a quarter to half a mile. From the coast as far north as the Kúk-ko channel, the country is uninhabited during the rains; at other seasons numerous temporary fishing hamlets are established by the inhabitants of the villages farther inland. The lower portion of the country, especially to the eastward, is low and intersected by numerous tidal creeks, whose banks have a deep fringe of heavy forest. From the Kúk-ko northwards, the country gradually rises, the intricacy of the creeks diminishes, and the size of the plains and permanently inhabitable spots increases. In the western and central portion of the township, north of La-bwot-ta, in 16° 18′ N., the land rises into small, well-wooded hills; and here small tracts of rice cultivation appear which, farther north, in the centre of the township, increase considerably in size. In the north-western corner an outcrop of magnesian limestone forms low hills, which are densely wooded. The extreme northern portion consists of a narrow tract of low ground, which stretches up some 15 miles north-north-east, between the Pya-ma-law and the Myoung-mya creeks.

The most important streams, besides the numerous creeks in the lower portion, are the MYOUNG-MYA-HOUNG and the RWE, which both leave the Myoung-mya at the town of that name, the MYOUNG-MYA itself and the PYA-MA-LAW. This last is one of the mouths of the Irawadi, which it leaves at Shwe-loung in the township of the same name, in Thún-kwa District, and reaches the sea by two mouths, the Pya-ma-law and the Pyeng-tha-lú. It is navigable by river steamers throughout its entire length; its mouth, where there is a formidable bar, is 4 miles wide.

The township is now divided into 10 revenue circles, viz. Kweng-bouk-gyí, Ka-wek, La-bwot-kú-la, Lay-byouk, Kya-gan, Myoung-mya, Kyún-ka-ní, Pú-lú, Pyeng-ma-gún, and Theng-gan-kywon. In 1876-77,

the population was 34,914; the gross revenue, £11,737. The principal towns and villages are—Myoung-mya, with 1715 inhabitants, the headquarters, on the Myoung-mya creek; Kyún-ka-ní, in the circle of the same name on the Kyún-tsien Re-gyaw, near its mouth, pop. 795; Kha-louk-thaik, west by north of Kyún-ka-ní, pop. 659; La-bwot-ta, in the south of the Kya-gan circle, pop. 1211; La-bwot-kú-la, near the junction of the Pú-lú and the Tha-re-bún, pop. 1800; and Da-ray-bouk, a few miles farther south, with 679 inhabitants.

Myoung-mya (formerly *Tshiep-gyí*).—Town and headquarters of the township of the same name in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma; situated in lat. 16° 35′ N., and long. 94° 51′ E., on the Myoung-mya creek. Pop. (1877), 1715. It was the scene of the first rising among the Karengs in 1853. Myoung-mya contains a court-house, police station, market, and a large pagoda with an image of Gautama Buddha. Revenue (1876-77), £23.

Myoung-mya.—Creek in Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma, forming the northern boundary of the township of the same name. This channel leaves the DAGA near Ut-hpo, in lat. 17° 4′ N., and long. 95° 16′ E., and runs south under various names, till turning westward a little east of Myoung-mya, it takes the name of that town. It is navigable by river steamers of 300 tons burden from a short distance above MYOUNG-MYA; in its upper course, large boats can pass at all seasons with the flood tide. Its extreme length is 15 miles; the chief branch is the Tha-re-bún, the head-waters of the Rwe.

Myoung-mya-houng.—Creek in the Myoung-mya township, Bassein District, Pegu Division, British Burma. It leaves the Tha-re-bún a few miles from its northern mouth, and, flowing in a generally south-west direction, falls into the BASSEIN RIVER by two mouths, the northern called Po-loung-gyí, and the southern, Peng-le-ga-le. It is tidal in the dry season, and navigable by boats of light draught.

Myoung-ta-nga.—Revenue circle in the Hlaing township, Rangoon District, Pegu Division, British Burma. Area, 220 square miles; pop. (1878), 4895; gross revenue, £2191. The eastern part of this circle is covered with dense forest (known as the Hlaing Forest), abounding in teak and other valuable timber; in the west, towards the Hlaing river, stretch cultivable plains broken by wooded tracts. The soil is poor, but the area under rice is steadily increasing; the lands lying west of the Rangoon State Railway are mainly taken up for gardens and orchards by the Shans. The produce is exported to Rangoon.

Mysore (or *Maisúr; Mahesh-asura*, 'Buffalo-monster'). — Native State in Southern India, temporarily under British administration; lying between 11° 40′ and 15° 0′ N. lat., and between 74° 40′ and 78° 30′ E. long., surrounded on all sides by British territory. The administrative headquarters are at BANGALORE, though MYSORE TOWN was the resi-

dence of the late Mahárájá. The following table gives the statistics of area and population, according to the Census of 1871:—

Divisions	Districts.	Area in Square Miles.	Population (Census of 1871).
Nandidrúg, . . .	Bangalore, . . .	2,914	828,354
	Kolar, . . .	2,577	618,954
	Túmkúr, . . .	3,606	632,239
	Total, . .	9,097	2,079,547
Ashtagrám, . . .	Mysore, . . .	4,128	943,187
	Hassan, . . .	3,291	669,961
	Total, . .	7,419	1,613,148
Nagar, ...	Shimoga, . . .	3,797	498,976
	Kádúr, . . .	2,294	332,381
	Chitaldrúg, . .	4,471	531,360
	Total, . .	10,562	1,362,717
	Grand Total, . .	27,078	5,055,412

Physical Aspects.—Mysore, as at present constituted—for it should be remembered that the limits of the State have varied greatly from time to time—is an undulating table-land, much broken up by ranges of rocky hills and scored by deep ravines; situated in the angle where the Eastern and Western Gháts converge into the group of the Nílgiri Hills. The general elevation of the country increases from about 2000 feet above sea level, along the northern and southern frontiers, to about 3000 feet at the central water-parting which separates the basin of the Krishna from that of the Káveri (Cauvery). This line of water-parting divides the country into two nearly equal parts, a little north of the 13th degree of latitude; and various chains of hills, running chiefly north and south, subdivide the whole into numerous valleys, widely differing in shape and size. An interesting feature of the country, and one of great importance from an historical point of view, is the large number of isolated rocks, called *droogs* or *drúgs* (from the Sanskrit *durgá*, 'difficult of access'), which are found in all parts, and which often rear their heads as stupendous monoliths to the height of 4000 or 5000 feet above the level of the sea. These rocks, from the circumstance that their summits frequently afford a plentiful supply of good water, were in former days very generally used as hill fortresses to domineer over the adjacent plains; some of them—and in particular NANDIDRUG (4810 feet) and SAVANDRUG (4024 feet)—have been the scene of many a

hard-fought contest, while KABALDRUG obtained an evil fame as a State prison. The eight highest peaks in Mysore are Muláina Giri (6317 feet), Kuduri-mukha (6215 feet), Bábá Búdan Giri (6214 feet), Kalhatti (6155 feet), Rudra Giri (5692 feet), Pushpa Giri (5626 feet), Merti Gudda (5451 feet), Woddin Gudda (5006). Five of these hills are comprised in the BABA BUDAN or Chandradrona range, a magnificent cluster in the shape of a horse-shoe, in the centre of which is a rich but pestiferous valley called Jágar.

Mysore is naturally divided into two regions of distinct character —the hill country, called the Malnád, on the west, confined to the tracts bordering or resting on the Western Gháts; and the more open country, known as the Máidán, comprising the greater part of the State, where the wide-spreading valleys and plains are covered with numerous villages and populous towns. The Malnád is a picturesque land of hill and forest, presenting most diversified and beautiful scenery. With regard to the Máidán or open country, the means of water supply and the prevailing cultivation give the character to its various parts. The level plains of alluvial black soil, in the north, grow cotton or millets ; the Districts in the south and west, irrigated by channels drawn from rivers, are covered with plantations of sugar-cane and fields of rice ; those irrigated from tanks are studded with gardens of cocoa-nut and areca palms ; the high-lying tracts of red soil, in the east, yield *rágí* and similar dry crops ; the stony pasture-grounds, in the central portions of the country, are covered with coarse grass, and occasionally relieved by shady groves.

Water System and Irrigation.—The drainage of the country, with a slight exception, finds its way to the Bay of Bengal, and is divisible into three great river systems,—that of the KRISHNA on the north, the KAVERI (Cauvery) on the south, the two PENNARS and the PALAR on the east. The only streams flowing to the Arabian Sea are those in certain districts in the north-west, which, uniting in the Sharavati, hurl themselves down the Gháts in the magnificent falls of Gersoppa ; and some minor streams in Nagar and Manjarábád, which flow into the Gargita and the Netravati. A line drawn east from Ballálráyandrúg to Nandidrúg, and thence south to Anekal, with one from Devaráydrúg north to Pávugada, will indicate approximately the watershed separating the three main river basins. From the north of this ridge flow the TUNGA and the BHADRA, rising in the Western Gháts and uniting in the TUNGABHADRA, which, with its tributary the HAGARI or Vedavati, joins the Krishna beyond the limits of Mysore, in Srí Sáila, near Kárnúl. From the south of the line, the HEMAVATI with its affluent the Yagachi, the LOKAPAVANI, SHIMSHA, and ARKAVATI flow into the Káveri (Cauvery), which, rising in Coorg, and taking a south-easterly course through Mysore, receives also on the right bank the LAKSHMAN-

TIRTHA, the GUNDAL, the KABBANI, and the HONNU-HOLE before quitting the territory. From the east of the line, in the immediate neighbourhood of Nandidrúg, spring three main streams, forming a system which Lassen has designated 'die Tripoṭamie des Dekhans,' namely, the NORTHERN PENNAR (with its tributaries the CHITRAVATI and PAPAGHNI), which discharges into the sea at Nellore; the SOUTHERN PENNAR, which ends its course at Cuddalore; and between them, the PALAR, whose mouth is at Sadras. Owing to either rocky or shallow beds, none of the Mysore rivers are navigable, but timber is floated down the Tunga, the Bhadra, and the Kabbani at certain seasons. Most of the streams are fordable during the dry months, or can be crossed by rude bridges formed of logs or stones thrown across from boulder to boulder. During floods, traffic over the streams is often suspended until the water subsides. But throughout the rainy season they are generally crossed at the appointed ferries by rafts, basket boats, canoes or ferry-boats. Men also sometimes cross by supporting themselves on earthen pots. Though useless for navigation, the main streams, especially the Káveri and its tributaries, support an extensive system of irrigation by means of channels drawn from immense dams called anicuts, which retain the upper waters at a high level and permit only the overflow to pass down stream. There are no natural lakes in Mysore; but the streams which gather from the hillsides and fertilize the valleys are at every favourable point embanked in such a manner as to form series or chains of reservoirs, called tanks, the outflow from one at a higher level supplying the next lower, and so on all down the course of the stream at short intervals. These tanks, varying in size from small ponds to extensive lakes, are dispersed throughout the country to the total number of 37,682; and to such an extent has this principle of storing water been followed, that it would now require some ingenuity to discover a site suitable for a new one. The largest of these tanks is the SULEKERE, 40 miles in circumference. The spring heads, called *talpargis*, form an important feature of the hydrography of the north-east. They extend throughout the border regions situated west of a line drawn from Kortagiri to Hiriyúr and Molkalmuru. In the southern parts of this tract, the springs may be tapped in the sandy soil at short distances apart, and the water rises close to the surface. Northward, the supply is not so plentiful. When the water is obtained, it is either conducted by narrow channels to the fields, or a well is constructed, from which the water is raised by bullocks.

Geology. — The geological structure of Mysore is mainly hypogene schists, penetrated and broken up by plutonic and trappean rocks in every form of intrusion, and overlaid with occasional patches of laterite and *kankar* (calcareous deposits), and, to the north of the main axial

line, with black cotton-soil. The granitic upheavals are seen either in precipitous dome-shaped monoliths, in low steppes, or in undulating layers, separated by fissures and joints, so as to present almost a stratified appearance. Detached cuboidal masses may be observed, not only weathering by concentric exfoliation into spheroids on a large scale, but assuming in their decay most fantastic forms. The prevailing granite is composed of quartz, felspar, mica, and hornblende, in varying combinations; but we also find syenite, protogine, pegmatite with its resulting kaolin, and porphyritic, hypersthenic, and amygdaloidal granites, with serpentine in eruptive masses, or in dikes and veins. Trappean rocks in the form of basalts, greenstone, felstone, and felstone porphyries, with other combinations, are to be seen similarly penetrating the gneiss; and mica and chloride schists in disrupting and intrusive masses, in low dikes, and extensive overflows. The earth, resulting in the shape of an open loam, varying in colour from a light red to dark chocolate, is not only highly fertile, but overlays the altered gneiss, etc., in such a way as to ensure excellent drainage. The long low dikes are numerous round Bangalore, and at the head-waters of the Arkávati valley, where their intrusion is greatest, and where their decay by concentric exfoliation and lamination may be distinctly traced. Solid veins, too, may be observed running through the isolated granitic *drúgs* which form so striking a feature of the country, and around the bases of which fallen portions from the bare summits present singular masses of amorphous forms. The gneissic rock about Bangalore possesses great economic value, being easily quarried from the surface, and well adapted for fine arch-work by the mere process of hammer-dressing. Certain porphyries, basalts, and granitoids yield excellent building material for ordinary work, but require chisel-dressing. The Púravakere basalt bears a high polish. The gneiss is also frequently traversed by granitic or quartzose veins, when the component minerals are segregated and crystallized, the mica occurring in plates, the quartz in amorphous nodules or hexahedral prisms, and the felspar compacted in beds of varied colouring. Milky quartz is also segregated into large beds containing nests and seams of iron-ore and amethystine crystal. Tourmaline, beryl, garnets, schorl, epidote, actinolite, agates, ribbon-jasper, chert, and sundry ochres are procurable in various places. Iron-ore of pure quality, and occasionally magnetic, is abundant, while magnetic iron-sand overlays the country thickly about the Hágalwádi Hills. In the Tungabhadra valley, clay, slate, and the softer shales are common, and in this direction long stretches of black cotton-soil are found. Beds of limestone and sandstone are to be seen at intervals in the northern part of the State, their discontinuity and dispersion being due to plutonic disturbance and subsequent denudation. Laterite is found near Bangalore in small quantities, and plentifully in Shimoga District,

where it occurs in detached blocks, the prevailing colour being a reddish brown. It is used for building purposes and as road metal. *Kankar* is found in districts penetrated by basaltic dikes, being met with in nodular masses and friable concretions in clay and gravel above the rocks, as also in irregular overlying beds. It is used for tank embankments, and also burnt into lime. In the alluvium covering a tract of country near Betmangalam in Kolár, gold is found in the form of small fragments and dust, but the auriferous strata have not, on being worked, proved remunerative.

History.—The early history of Mysore, like that of many parts of India, is involved in obscurity; but light has been thrown on it by the decipherment of numerous inscriptions on stone and copper found throughout the State. Various places mentioned in the *Mahábhárata* and *Rámáyana* have been identified. It was the kingdom of the mythical Sugriva, whose general, Hanumán, aided Rámá in his expedition against Lanka. At a later period, Buddhist emissaries appear to have visited the country, in the 3rd century B.C.; while the Jains established their supremacy here, and maintained it during many successive ages, leaving behind them several richly wrought temples and other memorials.

In the earliest historical times, the northern part of Mysore was held by the Kadamba dynasty, whose capital, Banawási, is mentioned by Ptolemy; they reigned with more or less splendour during fourteen centuries, though latterly they became feudatories of the Chalukyas. The Cheras or Kongus, who were contemporary with the Kadambas, governed the southern part of Mysore with Coimbatore; their capital having at first been at Kárur in the latter District, and afterwards at Talkád on the Káveri, where their dynasty was subverted by the Cholas in the 8th century. The numerous inscriptions of this family indicate that the earlier sovereigns professed the Jain faith, which, about the 3rd century A.D., was relinquished for Bráhmanism. Another ancient race was that of the Pallavas, who held a small portion of the eastern side of Mysore, but were overcome by the Chalukyas in the 7th century. The latter powerful dynasty came from the north of India in the 4th century, and conquered an extensive territory, part of which they retained till the close of the 12th century, when the Ballála chiefs overthrew them and annexed what remained of their dominions. The Cholas do not appear to have ruled in Mysore for more than a century and a half, and another line of kings, the Kalachurias, was equally short-lived; but the Haisala Ballála kings, who professed the Jain faith, were an enterprising and warlike race, who brought under their dominion all the western, central, and southern parts of the State as now existing, besides portions of Coimbatore, Salem, and Dhárwár. They ruled till 1310, at Dwárásamudra (or *Dwárkávati Pátan*), now

Halebid; but in that year, Málik Káfur, the general of the Emperor Alá-ud-dín of Delhi, took the Ballála king prisoner and sacked the town, which was entirely destroyed seventeen years later by another force, sent by Muhammad Tughlak (cf. Briggs' *Ferishta*, vol. i. pp. 373-413). Several temples still remain, both of the earlier Jain period and of the later kings, who reverted to Bráhmanism. Among these last, the Haisaleshwara Temple ranks as one of the architectural wonders of India.

After the subversion of the Ballála dynasty, a new and powerful Hindu sovereignty arose at Vijáyanagar on the Tungabhadra. This city was founded in 1336 by Hakka and Bukka, said to have been two high officials of the court of Warangal. Hakka took the title of Harihara, and gave to his dynasty the name of Narsinha, between whom and the Musalmán kings of the Báhmani line there was continuous rivalry, leading to frequent wars, which subsisted even after the dismemberment of the Báhmani kingdom. In 1565, four out of the five Musalmán kings of the Deccan united against Ráma Rájá, the ruling sovereign of Vijáyanagar, who was defeated and slain in the famous battle of Tálikot; and his descendants, after maintaining their authority for some time at Penukonda and Chandragiri farther south, became extinct as a ruling house. During the feeble rule of the last Narsinha princes at Penukonda, the petty local chiefs, generally called *Paligárs*, asserted their independence, of whom the most important were the Wodeyar of Mysore in the south, the Náyak of Keladi in the north, the Náyak of Balam (Manjarábád) in the west, and the Bidar chiefs of Chitaldrúg and Tarikere. *Wodeyar* is a plural or honorific form of *Odeya*, a Kanarese word meaning 'lord' or 'master.' In 1610, Ráj Wodeyar of Mysore, emboldened by the weakness of Tirumal, the viceroy of the decaying Narsinha dynasty, seized the fortress of Seringapatam, and thus laid the foundation of the present Mysore State.—*See also* MYSORE DISTRICT.

Ráj Wodeyar was the ninth in succession from Vijáya Ráj, who is said to have been a Yádava Kshattriya, and to have come with his brother Krishna Ráj from Dwárká in Suráshtra or Káthiáwár in 1399, in the palmy days of the Vijáyanagar monarchy, and to have obtained possession of the chiefship of Hadanáru, near Mysore. Prior to the seizure of Seringapatam by Ráj Wodeyar, it is said that a fort had been erected at Purakere, to which had been given the name of Mysore—or, more correctly, *Mahesh-asura*, a buffalo-headed monster destroyed by Kálí or Chámundí, who under the latter name is the tutelary deity of the Mysore family. And although Seringapatam became the capital, the Rájás have always been known in history as the Rájás of Mysore. The capture of Seringapatam by Ráj Wodeyár was the prelude to further acquisitions by two of his successors, Cháma Ráj and Kánthi

Ráj. The latter, who reigned from 1638 to 1658, was noted as an efficient administrator. During the intervals of his warlike expeditions, he introduced a tolerably successful revenue settlement, fortified his capital, and established a mint wherein *huns* or pagodas were struck in his name which are still current. The next ruler but one, Chikka Deva Ráj, during a long reign of thirty-four years, made his kingdom one of the most powerful in Southern India; and in his time, in 1687, the State religion reverted to Vishnuvism from the worship of the *lingam* or emblem of the god Siva, which had hitherto been in vogue from the times of Krishna Ráj. At the death of Chikka Deva Ráj in 1704, the Mysore State comprised the present Districts of Mysore, Hassan, and Túmkúr, with part of Bangalore, besides Coimbatore and Salem Districts in the Madras Presidency; that is, a territory now producing a revenue of over £800,000. After two more princes, the direct line failed in 1731. The next Rájá, a collateral relative named Chámaráj, was imprisoned by the *Dalavái* (or Commander-in-Chief) and the *Díwán* in the pestilential fortress of Kabáldrúg, where he soon died; and a distant relative named Chikka Krishna Ráj was put on the throne in 1734. It was during the reign of this chief that the famous Haidar Alí usurped the *masnad*, his military prowess, with the wealth seized by him at Bednúr in 1763, having made him the first personage in the State. But his dynasty was as brief as it was brilliant, and its history is too well known to need recital at length. What the father won, the son lost; and on the defeat and death of Tipú Sultán at the siege of Seringapatam in 1799, the English conquerors restored to the throne a representative of the ancient line in the person of Krishna Ráj, son of Cháma Ráj of Arakotára. From 1799 to 1810, the Rájá being a minor, the administration was conducted by Purnaiya, a Marhattá Bráhman of great ability, who ruled with a vigorous hand and filled the State coffers. But when, on his retirement, the young chief was invested personally with sovereign authority, he soon dissipated the wealth accumulated by his minister, and commenced a career of misgovernment which ended in 1831 by the British authorities assuming the administration in his name. On his demise in 1868, he was succeeded by an adopted son, the third child of Chikka Krishna Arasu of the Bettada Kote branch of the royal house, the new sovereign being installed under the title of Cháma Rájendra Wodeyar.

When the government was first taken out of the hands of Krishna Ráj, two Commissioners were nominated to represent British authority; but as this arrangement proved embarrassing, it was determined, in 1834, to appoint a sole Commissioner, Colonel (afterwards Sir Mark) Cubbon, who ruled the country with distinguished ability and success until 1861. The Government of India then resolved to introduce a system of administration more in accordance with that in force in British terri-

tory. The Court of Directors had ordered that the mode of government should be one which could be worked by native agency; but it was, almost from the first, found necessary to appoint four European officers to superintend the four great Divisions of the State in all details of the administration.

Future Administration.—Arrangements have recently been made for re-organizing the administrative constitution of Mysore, to adapt it for the future government of the Mahárájá by native agency. The following is a general view of the proposed administration:—The laws, and the rules for the transaction of public business, which shall be in force at the time of the transfer of the governing power, are to remain in force until altered by competent authority; and any material alteration must be made by regular and formal process, with the concurrence of the Government of India. All assessments of land revenue and all proprietary rights and tenures acknowledged by the State, will be upheld by the new Government according to their terms; no demand on account of taxes and no appropriation of public money will be made, except under the regularly constituted authorities previously determined; and the Mahárájá's private income will be kept permanently separate from the revenues of the State. The Mahárájá will be aided by a Council, who will deal with all the more important administrative measures, with propositions involving reference to the Government of India, and with the nomination to the more responsible offices. In the revenue department, there will be one Commissioner with purely administrative duties. Bangalore and Shimoga will be the principal Districts, and their Deputy Commissioners will have certain general powers of supervision and reference with respect to the District officers in charge of the minor Districts in their respective Divisions. A European Deputy Commissioner will, if possible, always be appointed to Hassan District, where there is a large European community engaged in coffee-planting. The judicial department will be entirely separate from the executive; the Chief Judge of the High Court being also the chief legislative adviser and councillor of the Mahárájá. There will be a Civil and Sessions Judge in Bangalore, and another in Shimoga; whilst in the headquarters Division, the duties of that appointment will be performed by each of the High Court Judges in turn. The ordinary magisterial work of each District will be managed by the Deputy Commissioner, a Judicial Assistant with one or more *munsífs* for civil work, and the *amildárs* (*táluk* officers) for petty cases. European magisterial and police agency will be retained for Bangalore. The police will be largely under the control of the District Magistrates; two out of the four regiments of Native Infantry will be disbanded, and their numbers drafted into the police; whilst the three regiments of Silladár Horse will be maintained

as recently reduced. Little change will be made in the Survey, Settlement, or Educational Departments; except that in the last-named, native inspectors will be substituted for the two European inspectors. Considerable economies will be effected in the Jail Department, and in all branches of the Public Works Department. Throughout all departments, wherever practicable, European officers will be replaced by natives.

Population.—According to the Census of 1871, the total population of Mysore then amounted to 5,055,412 persons, dwelling in 1,012,738 houses, and in 19,630 villages or townships. The total area was taken at 27,078 square miles. These figures yield the following averages:—Persons per square mile, 187; villages per square mile, 0·72; persons per village, 258; houses per square mile, 37; persons per house, 4·99. Classified according to sex, there were 2,535,924 males and 2,519,488 females; proportion of males, 50·13 per cent. Classified according to age, there were, under 12 years—922,936 boys and 896,290 girls; total children, 1,819,226, or 36 per cent. of the population. The following is the religious classification adopted:—Hindus, 4,807,425, or 95·09 per cent.; Muhammadans, 208,991, or 4·13 per cent.; Jains, 13,263, or 0·26 per cent.; Christians, 25,676, or 0·50 per cent.; Pársís, 43; members of the Bráhma Samáj, 14. The Hindus are further subdivided, according to the two principal sects, into 2,564,846 worshippers of Siva, and 2,242,532 worshippers of Vishnu, leaving 47 unspecified. The Christian population admits of several principles of subdivision. Out of the total, 4651 were returned as Europeans (including 4096 in the cantonments of Bangalore), 2921 Eurasians, and 18,104 native converts. According to another principle, 7344 are Protestants, and 18,257 Roman Catholics, leaving 75 unspecified. The only ethnical classification is that of the Hindus, with the following results:—Bráhmans, 169,637, of whom 114,823 belong to the Smarta sect; Kshattriyas, 67,358, including 41,778 Marhattás and 4479 Rájpinde or descendants of the royal family; 39,009 Vaisyas, or members of trading castes, of whom 28,345 are Komatis; Súdras, 3,021,609, the principal castes being Wokligas or cultivators (1,190,949), Kurubas or shepherds (371,317), Bedar or hunters (262,101), and Goála or cowherds (160,015); wandering tribes, 72,484, almost entirely distributed between Lambánis (33,263) and Korachas (36,652); wild tribes, 16,565, some of which are described further on; Coorgs, 18; other castes, 1,420,759, including Lingáyats, (417,900), Panchálas or handicraftsmen (103,911), religious mendicants (80,910), and out-castes or Pariahs (813,975). There are altogether 22 towns with more than 5000 inhabitants, showing a total urban population of 343,940 persons, or 6·79 per cent. of the population of the State. The 5 largest towns are—BANGALORE, pop. (1871), 142,513; MYSORE TOWN, pop. 57,815; TUMKUR, pop. 11,170; SHIMÒGA, pop. 11,034; SERINGAPATAM, pop. 10,594. The famine of 1876-77, together with

the large number of deaths, emigrants, and persons 'missing,' has affected the precision of the returns in this paragraph.

Wild Tribes.—Of the wild tribes, the Betta (Bamboo) Kurumbas are the most numerous. They live in the woods in small communities called *hádis*, their dwellings being merely sheds made of branches of trees. Of late years, they have lost much of their former shyness, and besides felling wood for the Forest Department, seek employment on coffee plantations. They still retain their love of sport, being excellent foresters, and well acquainted with the habits of wild beasts. They have no principle of caste, but each community is governed by a headman, who is generally the patriarch of the village. They are averse from cultivating the soil in the careful manner practised by most Mysore peasants, contenting themselves with sowing a little millet. Like some other wild tribes in India, they are credited with possessing magical powers, which, added to the inaccessibility of the retreats in which they have taken refuge, may have tended to preserve them from utter extermination. They are dark in colour, and short in stature, but have not so savage an appearance as some of the wilder tribes in Central India. Their long coarse hair grows to a length of 15 inches, and is drawn off the head to the back, and fastened by a piece of string. The women are rarely seen, and do not work with the men. A branch of this tribe, called the Jenu (Honey) Kurumbas, subsist almost entirely on forest products, and occupy themselves in collecting honey in the jungle. Having found out the trees where the combs are, they climb the adjoining trees, and, placing a pole between the two, contrive to creep along it with a torch in their hand, and then smoke out the bees. Both men and women of this sub-tribe are very unprepossessing in appearance, their features being coarse and irregular, and their hair hanging down in a dishevelled mass. In the Malnád, the aborigines are called Holiaru (from the Kanarese word *hola*, a field), and have from time immemorial been rural serfs, attached to the farms of the feudal headmen. One branch, called Munnálu (from *munna*, land, and *álu*, a slave), used to be sold with the land, and were specified in the leases; while another, called Honnálu (from *hona*, gold), were transferable with or without the soil. The price of a man and woman was from £4 to £5; and it was calculated that these, with a pair of bullocks, could cultivate 10 acres of land. Their master maintained them, giving them 2 lbs. of rice daily, with double this amount on feast-days, and an annual supply of clothes and blankets, to which were added presents on marriage. The children who were born belonged to the lord of the soil. The Holiaru live in huts in the neighbourhood of the farms, and generally possess small gardens for kitchen produce. They are a stout and healthy race, with broad features and flat faces, and generally carry about with them a wood-knife.

contains more than 30,000 trees, and the other, on the Bilikal Rangam Hill, 3000. The only species which has hitherto been found suited to the climate is *C. succirubra ; C. calisaya* and *C. officinalis* having failed. (6) In Chitaldrúg District, where black soil is commonly met with in the northern *táluks*, a good deal of foreign cotton is grown. A Government farm was established to promote the cultivation, but the results were unsatisfactory, and the enterprise was consequently stopped. (7) Tobacco of a fine quality is grown in Hassan District, but has not received special attention. (8) Cardamoms are in some places propagated by cuttings of the root, and elsewhere by felling trees of the primeval forests on the Western Gháts, when the plant springs up spontaneously. This cultivation is now attracting the attention of European planters; but though a valuable commodity, the demand for cardamoms is limited. In the Lál Bágh or Government Garden at Bangalore, attempts have been made with some success to grow vanilla, cocoa, rhea, ipecacuanha, and various other exotic plants, while the culture of apples, peaches, strawberries, and other fruits has been greatly improved.

Land Tenures.—The land tenures in Mysore are so far peculiar, that whereas in the plain Districts the *rayatwári* system prevails, in the hill tracts the land is held in *wargs* or farms, and not in separate fields. In the level country, the soil is classified as irrigated and unirrigated, the former being called 'wet,' and the latter 'dry' land, each producing different kinds of crops. Garden land is classed separately. The possession of this last, or of irrigated land, always carried with it a proprietary right; but it would appear that 'dry' land formerly belonged to the State, which could at any time resume it for any public object without compensation. The *rayats* received *pattas*, which were yearly renewable, being rather running accounts than real leases; and as the rates were often arbitrarily fixed at the pleasure of the *shánabhog* or village accountant, great discrepancies were found to exist, and gross partiality was common. To remedy this capricious and complicated mode of assessment, it was determined in 1863 to introduce the system of Survey and Settlement pursued in the Bombay Presidency, according to which the survey, classification, and assessment are disposed of in their several branches under the supervision of one responsible head. The process is not expeditious, owing to the great care and discrimination required to ensure a trustworthy classification and an equitable assessment; but as the leases hold good for thirty years, and give a complete proprietary right, a substantial boon is conferred on the cultivators. The limits of the survey 'numbers,' which, generally speaking, comprise as many fields, or as much land as can be ploughed by a pair of bullocks, are shown by mounds of earth called *bándhs*, at the corners of each

'number' and along the sides. Concurrently with the Survey Settlement, an *Inám* Commission was formed for the purpose of inquiring into the rent-free holdings, the *inámdárs* receiving fresh grants, which specify the amount of quit-rent where such is payable.

In the Malnád, although for administrative purposes there are nominal villages, the agriculturists do not live in communities, but each rent-payer has his own farm, and his own labourers, who were formerly serfs. The absence of any organization like that of the *Ayagár* or *Bára Baloti* (the 12 village officials), which prevailed in the plain Districts, of course threw all authority into the hands of the *pátel* or farmer, who, so long as he paid the Government demand on his farm, was practically omnipotent, except when crimes of a grave nature took place within his jurisdiction. In the wilder part of the country, the head-men received from the State grants of rent-free land in recognition of their feudal status. The rural slavery which mainly upheld this system was abolished by orders of the Government of India; but it does not seem to have been of a specially oppressive kind, the *pátels*, as a rule, treating their serfs rather as menial servants than as slaves. The Malnád farms comprise, besides rice lands and betel-nut gardens, a certain proportion of wood for timber and fuel, and grazing ground for cattle, the woods in some instances being extensive forests called *káns*, in which are grown coffee, pepper-vines, and other products. Shivappa Náyak of Keladi, who ruled over the Nagar country in the middle of the 17th century, fixed the Government share of the produce at one-third, taking as the basis of his valuation the quantity of seed required to sow a definite area of land, called locally the *bíjwári* (from *bíjá*, a seed). The total assessment, called the *shisht*, seems to have been equitable; but his successors, and notably Haidar Alí, added various extra charges called *patti*, amounting to one-third more, which bore heavily on the landholder. The new settlement is rectifying this injustice.

The only other tenure of importance is land granted for coffee cultivation, on certain specified conditions as to the plantation of a fixed number of plants every year, and the payment of an 'excise' at 1 rupee (2s.) per cwt. Such grants have virtually been issued under the guarantee of the British Government, and are therefore as valid as any other leases, provided that the conditions referred to have been fairly complied with. It is contemplated eventually to supersede the existing 'excise' by an assessment on the cultivated area.

The Famine of 1876-78.—The drought which affected all Southern India in 1876-78, fell with especial severity upon Mysore. From October 1875 to October 1877, four successive monsoons failed to bring their full supply of rain. The harvest of 1875 was generally below the average, and remissions of revenue were found necessary;

but it was not till towards the close of 1876 that famine was recognised to be abroad in the land. The crops of that year, in some parts, had yielded only one-eighth; and even in the less stricken Districts of Hassan and Shimoga, under the Western Gháts, only one-half of a fair harvest was gathered. The administration promptly opened relief-works, and appealed to the assistance of private charity. But here, as elsewhere, the calamity suddenly swept onward with a rush which foresight could not anticipate, and which measures of palliation were unable to cope with. Actual starvation, with its attendant train of diseases, soon became common. The miserable inhabitants, losing all traditions of social cohesion, flocked into Bangalore by thousands, only to die in the streets of the cantonments. On the other hand, grain was poured into Bangalore by the Madras Railway; but the means for bringing the food to the hungry mouths were inadequate. During the whole twelve months of 1877, famine was at work. In October of that year, the south-west monsoon broke with a fair rainfall, and cultivation at last became possible. The survivors returned to their villages, to commence ploughing with the few oxen that remained to them, and sow the seed supplied by English benevolence. As the year 1878 wore on, despite some alarms of a recurrence of distress in March and April, relief operations were gradually contracted; but it will take many years before Mysore recovers its normal condition of prosperity. It is estimated that one-fourth of the total population has been swept away by starvation or disease; and the mortality among cattle must have been yet more heavy. Affairs were at their worst in September 1877, when a total of 280,000 persons throughout the State were in receipt of relief, of whom only 24,000 were employed on works under professional supervision. In that month, the famine deaths reported in the town of Bangalore averaged about 40 a day, while double that number perished daily in the relief camps and hospitals. The total amount expended by the State on famine relief, apart from the immediate and prospective loss of land revenue, may be calculated at more than one million sterling. The invested surplus of many years, amounting to £462,000, was quickly absorbed; and a loan of £500,000 was advanced by the British Government. In addition, a sum of £155,000 was allotted to Mysore out of the Mansion-House Relief Fund.

Manufactures. — The manufactures of Mysore are not of great importance. The chief is that of iron, for which there is a foundry at Bangalore; besides petty local furnaces. The metal is found in great quantities in many parts of the State, by digging in the lower hills which intersect the country from north to south. The smelting furnaces are of a rude but effective character, and at present supply all the requirements of the cultivators. But the ore is so rich and abundant, that it seems probable that improvements in the processes

would be attended with profitable results. The manufacture of steel has not hitherto been successful, owing to the fact that the fusion has been found to be imperfect until the metal has been twice subjected to the fusing process. The manufacture of glass bangles or bracelets has long been successfully carried on at Mattod in Chitaldrúg District. Raw silk was formerly produced in considerable quantities, especially in the neighbourhood of Bangalore; but the production has dwindled to almost nothing, owing to obstinate disease amongst the silk-worms. Among other manufactures, the red morocco leather of Harihar, the blankets of Chitaldrúg, and the carpets of Bangalore (especially those made in the central jail) deserve mention.

Commerce.—The following are the chief articles of trade:—Exports—coffee, £297,000; areca or betel-nut, £260,000; *rágí*, £205,000; rice, £180,000; piece-goods, £80,000; coarse cloth, £78,000; jaggery sugar, £70,000; gold, £64,000: Imports—piece-goods, £400,000; silver, £291,000; coarse cloth, £216,000; wheat, £166,000; gold, £154,000; cotton, £145,000; rice, £107,000; areca or betel-nut, £102,000; *rágí*, £62,000. A good deal of areca-nut, grown in the Bombay Presidency, passes through Mysore, where it pays duty, to Wálájápet and Arcot in Madras. Sandal-wood, which is a State monopoly, is not shown in the above returns, as the income derived from it forms part of the revenue of the Forest Department. The receipts under this head fluctuate greatly according to the demand for the wood, but the average annual income during thirty years has been about £15,000.

Roads and Railways.—There are at present only 53 miles of railway in Mysore, forming part of a branch line from Jollárpet in the Madras District of Salem to Bangalore. In 1875-76, this line carried nearly 200,000 passengers; the receipts were £17,738 from passengers and £32,644 from goods, making a total of £50,382; the working expenses were £45,016. It is in contemplation to connect Bangalore with Mysore town, and also with Tripatúr and Hassan, by a system of light railways, which would bring to Bangalore, as the main centre, the greater part of the coffee, areca-nut, and other products of the western and north-western *táluks*. An excellent network of Provincial and District roads permeates the State; and great attention has been paid to the numerous passes leading through the Gháts to the low country in North and South Kanara, the principal of these lines being the Gersoppa, Kolúr, Haidargarh, and Agumbi *ghát* roads in Shimoga, the Bund or Kodekal Pass on the frontier of Kádúr and Hassan, and the Manjarábád *ghát* in the *táluk* of that name.

Revenue and Expenditure.—In 1791, the gross revenue of Mysore was returned by Tipú Sultán at 1,412,500 pagodas, or say £400,000. In 1802-3, under the management of the Díwán Purnaiya, the revenue

had risen to £740,000, but it rapidly fell when the late Rájá took the government into his own hands. In 1833-34, the first year of British administration, the amount realized was only £550,000. A countless number of vexatious imposts have since been abolished, and personal debts of the late Rájá have been paid off to the amount of £750,000. The revenue now stands at more than one million sterling. In 1872-73, the actual amount of receipts was £1,099,668, the chief items being—land revenue, £735,028; *abkárí* or excise, £108,082; *sayar* or customs, £88,582; *mohtarfa* or assessed taxes, £38,800; forests, £37,618; law, police, and justice, £41,439; stamps, £18,824. In the same year, the total expenditure amounted to £1,013,100, showing a favourable balance or surplus of £86,568. The following were the chief items of expenditure:—Civil administration, £403,400; British subsidy, £245,000; public works, £142,400; military force, £108,600; Rájá's personal expenses, £85,400; religious and charitable institutions, £28,300.

Local Funds.—For the maintenance of District roads and other local objects, a cess is levied of 1 anna in the rupee on the land revenue in settled *táluks*, half an anna in unsettled *táluks*, and half an anna on certain minor collections. In surveyed *táluks*, 1 anna in the rupee is also levied on irrigated lands for the maintenance of the tanks in each District. The amount collected on account of local funds in 1875-76 was £51,206, of which about one-quarter was set apart for the support of village schools.

Municipalities have been established at all District headquarters, and in 67 other towns. The total municipal receipts in 1875-76 were £37,552, and the expenditure, £36,737. The income is chiefly derived from octroi duties.

Public Works.—Prior to 1856, most public works not of a technical character were executed by the civil officers, great attention being paid to individual tanks and to the main communications of the State. The outlay from 1831 to 1856 was—on irrigation works, £325,000; on roads, £287,500; and on buildings, £60,000. Since the institution of the Public Works Department, the total outlay during twenty years, exclusive of establishment, has been £1,890,925, of which £967,491 was assigned to communications, £528,017 to agriculture and irrigation, and £291,995 to civil buildings.

Forests.—In 1863-64, a Forest Conservancy Department was introduced, which has materially conduced to the preservation of valuable timber, while reserving the rights of cultivators to trees on their holdings planted by themselves or previous occupiers, sandal-wood excepted. There are now 450 square miles of reserved forests and 130 square miles of unreserved forests. In addition, great numbers of trees have been planted along roads and in villages. The surplus revenue shown by the department in 1873-74 was £25,000.

Justice.—The system of judicial procedure, both civil and criminal, is now assimilated to that in force in British territory. In former days, *panchdyats* were largely resorted to for the adjudication of civil cases, and great latitude was given to the officers presiding in the courts. The greater part of the civil work is now performed by *munsífs*, having jurisdiction in suits up to £30 in value, and by judicial assistants, who dispose of suits between £30 and £500; all these officers being obliged to write out their decrees themselves. In appeal cases, the opportunity of appearing personally is always afforded. The number of civil cases decided in 1875 was 25,052, with a value of £250,215, of which nearly three-fourths were uncontested. In the same year, the total number of criminal offences (great and small) was 13,018; the number of persons brought to trial was 27,041, of whom 13,419, or 49 per cent., were convicted, being 1 person convicted of an offence of some sort to every 376 of the population. The number of prisoners in jail at the end of 1875 was 1767, of whom 87 were females. Prior to 1863, little attention was paid to jail discipline, the convicts being employed in gangs on the construction of roads; but all labour is now, with rare exceptions, intramural. A first-class prison, on the panopticon principle, was in that year erected at Bangalore, the convicts being taught various manufactures, such as making carpets, tents, blankets for horses, besides articles required for jail purposes, and also printing, lithography, carpentry, etc. The dry earth system for sewage has been introduced with great success, the refuse being used in the prison garden. The cost of maintaining the convicts averages £8, 14s. 5d. per head annually.

Police.—The police force consisted till a recent period of the ancient village watchmen, and of the *kandachár* peons, who were the remains of the armed militia of the country. Though they had a good knowledge of the criminal classes in their several beats, they had no special training or organization. Since 1866, the *kandachárs* have been superseded in Bangalore District by a constabulary under a European officer; and further steps have been taken, while preserving on an improved basis the village police, to introduce a superior class of men into the regular police, by giving them better pay. In 1875-76, the force consisted of 4056 officers and men, employed in the rural Districts, and 790 in municipal towns and cantonments. The cost was £57,315, of which £49,870 was paid from the general revenue and £7480 from municipal funds. These figures show 1 policeman to every 1043 of the population and to every $5\frac{1}{2}$ square miles of the area.

Military.—Mysore pays a yearly subsidy to the British Government of £245,000 for the maintenance of a force for the defence of its territory: the existing strength being—the headquarters and a battery of horse artillery, and 2 field batteries; a regiment of European cavalry; a regiment of European infantry; the headquarters and 4 companies of

sappers; and 3 regiments of Madras Native Infantry, of which one is stationed at French Rocks, near Seringapatam, the other two being at Bangalore.

The local force consists of 1000 horsemen called *silladárs*, divided into 3 regiments, and 4 regiments of foot, called *bár*, numbering 2000 men. The *silladárs* have at various periods done good service. In 1807, they were a strong body of 4000 men, but their efficiency gradually declined. A few years ago, considerable reductions were made in their strength, while those who remained were better clothed and armed, and the whole force was brought under proper control. The *silladárs* are employed at outposts for internal security, and do useful work in aiding the police in the pursuit of criminals. The *bár* are the remains of Haidar Alí's army, now exclusively employed in guarding treasuries and jails, and in escorting treasures. They are a very serviceable and well-conducted body of men.

Education.—Little attention was paid to education in Mysore before 1854, though some schools had been opened by the Wesleyans; in 1855, the Government expenditure only amounted to £1650. In 1861, a normal school was established at Bangalore, to which, in the next year, an engineering school was added; while education began to spread through the outlying Districts. In the year 1868, a system of primary education for the masses was introduced, which has attained a great and deserved success. It consisted in the establishment of a school in every one of the 645 *hoblis* (or minor fiscal units) of the State, the cost of the scheme being met by a contribution of 24 per cent. from the local funds. The teachers were paid Rs. 7 a month, or at the rate of about £8 a year, the people providing school accommodation; but no fees were levied from the scholars, the result being that the schools became very popular. In 1875-76, the total number of schools of all classes in the Province was 724 Government schools, 114 aided schools, and 1350 private schools; grand total, 2188 schools, with 54,191 pupils—exclusive of 7 schools, with 970 pupils, under the military authorities. Of the whole number of scholars, 51,613 were boys and 3548 girls. These figures show 1 school to every 12 square miles, and 11 pupils to every thousand of the population.

Medical Institutions.—The medical institutions consist of 3 general hospitals, 9 dispensaries, with a lunatic asylum and a leper hospital at Bangalore. In 1875-76, the total number of patients treated was 118,993, of whom 3345 were in-patients.

Mysore (*Maisúr*).—A District forming the southernmost portion of the State of the same name, included in the Ashtagrám Division; situated between 11° 6′ and 12° 45′ N. lat., and between 75° 56′ and 77° 24′ E. long.; bounded south by the Nílgiri Hills, and west by the State of Coorg. It contains an approximate area of 4128 square miles,

and a population, according to the Census of 1871, of 943,187 persons. The administrative headquarters and residence of the Rájá are at Mysore Town.

Physical Aspects.—The District of Mysore has been described as an undulating tableland, well wooded and fertile, and watered by perennial streams, which feed numerous artificial channels. There is a gradual fall in the level of the plain from west to east, following the course of the Káveri (Cauvery); and the extreme south, along the skirts of the Nílgiri Hills, is occupied by a *tarái* of marshy and dense jungle. Lofty mountain ranges, covered with primeval forests, shut in the District on the western, the southern, and the greater part of the eastern frontier. The only break in this barrier is where the Káveri bursts through the Gháts and forms the celebrated falls of Sivasamudaram. The highest range of hills is the Biligiri-rangam in the south-east, which attain a height of about 5000 feet above sea level. The general elevation of the plateau varies from 2800 to 2300 feet. The great river of the District is the Kaveri (Cauvery), which in usefulness, in sanctity, and in picturesque features is scarcely surpassed throughout India. It rises in Coorg, and crosses the District of Mysore from west to east, flowing by the ancient capitals of Talkad and Seringapatam. At the District boundary it encircles the island of Sivasamudaram, near the magnificent waterfall of that name; and finally, after forming the no less sacred island of Srírangam, it reaches the Bay of Bengal through the fertile delta of Trichinopoli and Tanjore, the two main arms being called respectively the Coleroon (Kolâdan) and the Káveri (Cauvery). Its chief tributaries in Mysore District are the Hemavati, Lokapavani, and Shimsha on the left bank, and the Lakshmantirtha, Kabbani, and Honnu-hole on the right. All these rivers, as well as the main stream, are abundantly used for irrigation.

The geological formation principally consists of granite, gneiss, quartz, syenite, and hornblende. In some places these rocks are overlaid with laterite. Iron abounds in all the hills, and is extensively smelted and worked into a great variety of implements. Stones containing magnetic iron are especially valued for medicinal purposes. Gold is washed in insignificant quantities in some of the hill streams. Other mineral substances applied to a practical use are talc, asbestos, flint nodules, and potstone. The prevalent soil throughout the District is a red loam, but the more fertile 'black cotton-soil' is found in the south-east. A great belt of forest extends along the western frontier of the District for a distance of about 80 miles, varying from 2 to 6 miles in width. Besides the common forest trees, sandal-wood, teak, and blackwood are to be seen; the date-palm also is very abundant. Even the most highly cultivated tracts yield a plentiful supply of wood for fuel. There are altogether 180 square miles of forest reserves, for

the most part in the Heggada Devanakote *táluk*. These forests harbour herds of wild elephants, which occasionally commit great devastations on the cultivated fields. In recent years, however, their numbers have greatly diminished, owing to the spread of agriculture; and since 1868 orders for their strict preservation have been in force. A *khedda* party, in a single day in 1874, captured a herd of 55 of these animals, including 13 tuskers. Tigers and bison are also numerous, but the annual number of deaths from wild beasts has now been reduced to a low average. The other wild animals include bears, panthers, and leopards, *sámbhar* and spotted deer. The winged game are pea-fowl, jungle-fowl, and bustard.

History.—The history of Mysore District is mainly identical with the general history of the State. The banks of the sacred Káveri (Cauvery) abound in legends, associated with every rapid and island, some of which refer back to the times of the *Mahábhárata*. The earliest mention of Mysore is found on a tablet of the Buddhist monarch Asoka, 245 B.C., but the identification is somewhat doubtful. The first authentic record refers to the city of Talkád on the Káveri, near the eastern portion of the District, which was the capital at one time of the Chera line of kings, who ruled in Southern India from the 3rd to the 9th century A.D. The Cheras were succeeded by the Cholas, in their turn overthrown by the Ballála dynasty, who have left many monuments and inscriptions throughout the District. The chief cities at this period were Talkád, Nagarapura, and Somnáthapura. In the 14th century, the Ballála line came to an end, and the Vijáyanagar sovereigns became paramount throughout the south. Their viceroy, known as Srí-ranga-ráyal, from his residence at Seringapatam, levied tribute from the surrounding country so far as it did not fall under the dominion of semi-independent feudatory chiefs. Among these feudatory chiefs the Wodeyárs of Mysore gradually rose into prominence. The family cannot boast of any great antiquity. The first of the name is said to have arrived as an adventurer at the little village of Hadanáru in the 14th or 15th century, and to have won the hand of the heiress of the local *paligár* by his chivalrous conduct. It was not till 1524 that the fort of Mysore was built, on the site of a village formerly named Puragiri, and called Mahesh-asura, after the buffalo-headed monster whose destruction is the most noted exploit of the goddess Kálí. The Wodeyárs henceforth rapidly grew in power, until in 1609 they obtained possession of Seringapatam from the last of the Vijáyanagar viceroys, whether by force or stratagem is uncertain. From this event may be dated the foundation of the Hindu kingdom of Mysore, which continues to the present day. The Wodeyárs appear always to have remained on good terms with the Muhammadan invaders, who about this time came down from the north. The Bijápur armies under the Marhattá

Sháhjí did not advance so far as this remote corner; but when these armies were overthrown by the Mughals, the Wodeyár of Mysore contrived to obtain his share of the plunder. In 1687, he purchased from Kásim Khán, the general of Aurangzeb, the tract comprised within the present District of Bangalore for the sum of £30,000; and in 1699, he obtained from the Delhi Emperor the right of sitting on an ivory throne—to this day the badge of royalty in Mysore. On the death of Chikka Deva Ráj in 1704, his dominions extended from the south of Coimbatore to the north of Túmkúr District, and from the borders of Coorg to the Karnatic Gháts. It will be observed that these limits are much narrower than the present State of Mysore; and, moreover, the sovereign rights of the Rájá were greatly impaired by the semi-independence of his many feudatories. It is to the Musalmán usurper Haidar Alí that Mysore owed both its widest extension and the organized empire which tolerated no subjects but slaves. From the beginning of the 18th century, the Wodeyárs fell under the control of their Dalawáis or hereditary Mayors of the palace. And this circumstance rendered it the more easy for Haidar Alí to supersede their authority, and finally to rule in his own name; while the representatives of the old Hindu dynasty were kept as State prisoners in their own palace at Seringapatam. The usurpation of Haidar Alí is generally dated from 1761. It is a matter of imperial history how, after the death of Tipú in 1799, the Marquis of Wellesley resolved to restore the Hindu dynasty in the person of a boy four years old; and how, in 1831, the British assumed the direct administration of the State. In 1811, Bangalore was fixed upon as the most healthy station for the European troops, and as the headquarters of the civil government, though Mysore still continues to be the residence of the Rájá.

Population.—A *khána-sumári*, or house enumeration of the people, in 1853-54, returned a total of 602,040 souls, exclusive of the *jágír* of Yelandúr. The regular Census of 1871 showed the number to be 943,187, giving an increase over the corresponding area of 52 per cent. in the interval of 18 years, if the earlier estimate can be trusted. The area of the District is estimated at 4128 square miles, which yields an average of 228·5 persons per square mile, an average which rises to 453 in the *táluk* of Chamrájnagar. Classified according to sex, there were (prior to the famine of 1876-77) 467,562 males and 475,625 females; proportion of males, 49·57 per cent. There were, under 12 years of age, 180,387 boys and 167,188 girls; total children, 347,575, or 37 per cent. of the District population. The occupation tables are scarcely trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that 180,226 persons were returned as connected with agriculture, and 50,027 with manufacture and arts. The religious division of the people in 1871 showed—Hindus, 898,861, or 95·3 per cent.; Muhammadans, 39,790, or 4·3 per cent.;

Jains, 2250, or 0·3 per cent.; Christians, 2249, or 0·3 per cent.; and 37 Pársís. The Hindus are further subdivided, according to the two great sects, into worshippers of Vishnu, whose number was returned at 251,719, and worshippers of Siva, returned at 647,142. The Bráhmans numbered 28,815, chiefly belonging to the Smarta sect; the claimants to the rank of Kshattriyahood were returned at 15,188, including 6724 Marhattás and 2042 Rájputs; the Vaisyas were represented by only 3166, of whom 2227 were Komatis. Of inferior castes, the most numerous is the Wokliga (183,601), who are agricultural labourers; next come the Kurumbas (98,247), shepherds; and the Bestars (80,782), fishermen. The Lingáyats, who have always been very influential in this part of the country, were returned at 138,249, of whom many are classified as agriculturists, though trade is the special occupation of the sect. Out-castes are returned at as many as 175,355; wandering tribes, 5476; wild tribes, 3917. The Musalmáns muster strongest in the *táluk* of Mysore, and are almost all returned as Dakhni Musalmáns. Out of the total of 2249 Christians, 110 were returned as Europeans and 196 Eurasians, leaving 1943 for native converts, of whom 882 were found in the town of Mysore. According to another principle of division, there were 507 Protestants and 1742 Roman Catholics. The 37 Pársís all reside in Mysore town.

The District contains 2174 towns and villages, with 5398 houses of the better class, or over £50 in value, and 166,264 houses of the inferior sort. As compared with the area and the population, these figures yield the following averages:—Number of villages per square mile, 0·53; houses per square mile, 42; persons per village, 434; persons per house, 5·49. The town of MYSORE, which is fully described in the following article, covers an area of about 3 square miles, and contains a total population of 57,815 persons. The two following towns also each contain a population of more than 5000:—SERINGAPATAM, 10,594; MALVALLI, 5114. There are altogether eleven municipalities in the District, with an aggregate municipal revenue in 1874-75 of £9791, of which amount Mysore town is credited with £8025 and Seringapatam with £1048. Among other interesting sites may be mentioned TALKAD, the ancient metropolis of Southern India, now covered with blown sand that has drifted from the bed of the river Káveri; the ancient city of Tirkanámbi; the cantonments at HIRODE or FRENCH ROCKS; and the hill of Chamundi, with its colossal figure of the sacred bull of Siva. The celebrated falls of the Káveri near SIVASAMUDARAM lie just beyond the Mysore boundary, within the Madras District of Coimbatore.

Agriculture.—The main cultivation of the District consists of dry crops, though there are especially favoured tracts where the facility of irrigation permits rice to be grown. The great food staple is *rágí*

(Cynosurus corocanus), which is preferred by the labouring classes to rice, on account of its strengthening qualities. In 1869, it was estimated that 4s. would purchase enough of this grain to sustain a man for one month. The straw of *rágí* furnishes, also, the best fodder for cattle. The crops, both wet and dry, are generally classed as *hain* or *kár*, according to the season, but it is not usual to take both a *hain* and a *kár* crop off the same land. *Hain* crops, both wet and dry, are sown in July and August; *kár* wet crops in September, and *kár* dry crops in April. All crops can be grown as either *hain* or *kár*, with the exception of certain sorts of paddy, cotton, wheat, gram, and many vegetables, which are grown as *hain* only. Among miscellaneous crops raised only in certain localities, may be mentioned tobacco, cotton, and sugar-cane. Coffee cultivation has been attempted, but with very little success. The cultivation of mulberry also has greatly fallen off, owing to the persistent mortality among the silk-worms. Out of a total area of 4128 square miles, 1464, or 35 per cent., are returned as under cultivation, the greater part of the rest being uncultivable waste. The following statistics are merely approximate:—Area under rice, 58,839 acres; wheat, 5950; other food grains, 564,908; oil-seeds, 33,524; vegetables, 19,314; cocoa-nut and areca-nut, 14,305; cotton, 3413; tobacco, 1894; coffee, 528; sugar-cane, 244. The agricultural stock is returned at 8373 carts, and 99,411 ploughs. Irrigation is industriously practised wherever practicable, by means of artificial channels drawn off by anicuts, or dams, from the large rivers. On the Káveri there are 9 of these anicuts, and 7 on the Lakshmantírtha. The total length of channels is 497 miles, watering an area that yields a revenue of £27,500. The total number of tanks is 1978. Owing to the fertility of the soil, manure is less necessary than in other Districts. The common cattle of Mysore are of a poor description, but there are two or three famous breeds. Foremost among these is the *amrita mahál*, which is said to have been selected by Haidar Alí for military purposes, and is still carefully maintained by the Government. The characteristics of this breed are size, endurance, speed, soundness of feet, and a light colour. Two other local breeds, differing from the *amrita mahál* chiefly by the absence of thorough-bred qualities, are known as *hallikár* and *madhugiri*. The total live stock of the District is returned at 488,366 cows and bullocks, 1554 horses, 2592 ponies, 8620 donkeys, 430,732 sheep and goats, and 834 pigs. It has been observed that the jungle tribe of Kurumbas are in the habit of domesticating the young of the wild hog.

Manufactures, etc.—The chief industries of the District are concentrated at Mysore town, and at Ganjám, the modern quarter of Seringapatam. The articles made are cotton cloth of fair quality, *kamblis* or country blankets, coarse paper, and sugar. Cotton-weaving

and the manufacture of pottery and brass-ware are carried on in most villages, to meet the local demand. The winding of raw silk is a declining industry. At HUNSUR there were formerly Government factories connected with the Commissariat Department; and at the present time leather articles (boots, knapsacks, etc.), fine blankets, and carts continue to be produced there by workmen who maintain the old traditions of their trades. The tannery is now in the hands of an enterprising native. At the same place, also, there are extensive pulping works for coffee, which is sent from the Coorg plantations. PALHALLI is the site of another important factory, known as the Ashtagrám Sugar Works, where the jaggery produced by the *rayats* from sugar-cane and the date-palm is refined. This factory has obtained honourable awards at several exhibitions in Europe.

The principal exports are food grains, oil-seeds, betel-leaf, sugar, silk, tobacco, hides, sandal-wood, and sheep; the imports are piece-goods, hardware, salt, *ghí*, cotton, and wheat. There is a great demand for grain in Coimbatore and the Nílgiri Hills, and a considerable trade is conducted with Bangalore and Madras. Local traffic is carried on chiefly at weekly markets, and a large number of the traders are Musalmáns. The merchants residing at the town of Mysore belong for the most part to the Kunchigar caste. The chief annual fairs are held at Seringapatam, Ganjám, and Chunchankatte. There is no line of railway in the District. The total length of imperial roads is 316 miles, maintained at an annual cost of £4592; of District roads, 247 miles, costing £1250.

Administration.—In 1873-74, the total revenue of Mysore District, excluding education and public works, amounted to £160,010. The chief items were—land revenue, £94,990; forests, £19,622; and *ábkárí* or excise, £18,364. The District is divided into 11 *táluks* or fiscal divisions, with 92 *hoblis* or minor fiscal units. In 1870-71, the total number of revenue-paying estates was 552, owned by 25,955 registered proprietors or coparceners. These figures do not include the *jágír* of YELANDUR in the south-east of the District, containing an area of 73 square miles—a very fertile tract, which was granted as an hereditary fief, rent free, by the British Government to the Diwán Púrnaiya in 1808. During 1874, the average daily prison population of the District jail was 898·88, and of the *táluk* lock-ups, 30·61; total, 929·49, of whom 18·43 were women, showing 1 person in jail to every 1015 of the population. In the same year, the District police force numbered 85 officers and 515 men; and the municipal police, 37 officers and 227 men; total, 864 men of all ranks, maintained at an aggregate cost of £8156. These figures show 1 policeman to every 4 square miles of area or to every 1092 persons of the population; the cost being £1, 19s. 6d. per square mile, and 2d. per head of popula-

tion. The number of schools aided and inspected by Government in 1874 was 275, attended by 6513 pupils, being 1 school to every 15 square miles, and 16·9 pupils to every thousand of the population. In addition, there were 150 unaided schools, with 781 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Mysore is hotter than that of the neighbouring District of Bangalore, and exhibits greater extremes of temperature. The mean annual temperature is a little above 77° F. The maximum recorded in 1874 was 100° in the months of March and April, the minimum was 50° in January. The annual rainfall, calculated over a period of 38 years, is 28·9 inches, of which the greater portion falls between August and October; May also is a rainy month. It has been observed that the tracts lying close beneath the Nílgiri Hills and the Western Gháts receive less rain than the open country.

The most prevalent disease is malarious fever, which is generally amenable to treatment; but in special tracts, such as the island of Seringapatam and the *tarái* lying beneath the Nílgiri Hills, it is complicated with enlargement of the spleen and visceral congestions. Europeans are most liable to fever during the cold months, from December to February. Both Europeans and natives enjoy the best health during the prevalence of the south-west monsoon. Outbreaks of epidemic cholera, when they occur, generally commence in about the month of April. The vital statistics are far from trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that out of a total number of 9348 deaths reported in 1872, 5970 were assigned to fever, 1247 to bowel complaints, 729 to small-pox, and 32 to snake-bite and wild beasts. In 1874, the Rájá's Hospital at Mysore town was attended by 744 in-patients, of whom 67, or 90·05 per thousand, died; the out-patients numbered 18,635.

Mysore.—The ancient capital of the State of the same name, and administrative headquarters of the District; situated in 12° 18′ 24″ N. lat., and 76° 41′ 48″ E. long., 10 miles south by west of Seringapatam. The Census of 1871 returned the total number of inhabitants at 57,815, of whom 29,081 were males and 28,734 females. Classified according to religion, there were 43,905 Hindus, 12,883 Muhammadans, 990 Christians, and 37 Pársís. The Christians were further subdivided into 73 Europeans, 96 Eurasians, and 821 native converts; and again, by another principle of division, into 247 Protestants and 743 Roman Catholics. The total area is about 3 square miles, spread over 3 suburbs. The number of houses in 1871 was 11,618, of which 912 were classed as of the better sort. The municipal committee is presided over by the Town Magistrate. In 1873-74, the total municipal income amounted to £8025, of which £5486 was derived from octroi duties, and £1930 from taxes (chiefly on houses and trades); giving an average rate of taxation of 2s. 9d. per head. The total expenditure in the same year was £6446, of which £2147 was for police, £2086

for public works, £1083 for conservancy, and £879 for collection, etc.

General Aspects, Buildings, etc.—The town lies at the foot of the Chámundi Hill, in a valley formed by two parallel ridges running north and south. The general line of drainage is towards the south, and in the rainy season the surface water runs off rapidly into a large tank, called after Deva Rájá. The fort alone drains into the *Dalaváí's* (or Commander-in-Chief's) tank, 4 miles farther south. The streets generally are broad and regular, except in the fort. The majority of the houses are tiled, and some of them are substantial buildings, two or three storeys high, with terraces. Altogether, the town has a clean and prosperous look, and of late years the efforts of the municipal committee have greatly improved the sanitation.

The fort stands in the south of the town, forming a quarter by itself. The ground-plan is quadrangular, each of the sides being about 450 yards long. The defences consist of a stone wall, ditch, and glacis, with outworks and flanking towers; but they are mean and ill-planned. In the interior is the palace of the Mahárájá, built since 1800 in an extravagant style of Hindu architecture, and adorned inside with a few paintings executed by a European artist. The front, tawdrily painted and supported by four wooden pillars fantastically carved, comprises the Sejje or Dashara Hall, where the late Mahárájá used to show himself to the people on great occasions seated on his throne. This throne is the principal object of interest in the palace. It is made of fig-wood, overlaid with ivory, and is generally stated to have been presented to Chikka Deva Ráj in 1699 by the Emperor Aurangzeb. The ivory has recently been covered with gold and silver plating, wrought with the customary figures of Hindu mythology. To be seated on this throne constitutes the coronation ceremony in Mysore; and the State appellation of the Mahárájá is *Sinhásan-ádhipati*, or 'ruler enthroned.' The only other rooms in the palace worthy of mention are the *ambá-vilása*, with floor of *chunám* and doors of ivory and silver, where the late Mahárájá used to receive his European guests; and the Painted Hall, with massive walls of mud, which is the only relic of the original palace destroyed by Tipú Sultán. The whole of the palace is in very bad repair, and fast crumbling into ruins. A new palace for the young Mahárájá is now in course of erection at Bangalore. The remainder of the area enclosed within the fort is covered with houses, which are mostly occupied by members of the royal household.

Opposite the western gate of the fort is a lofty and handsome building known as the Mohan Mahál, which was erected by the late Mahárájá for the entertainment of the European officers. The upper storey is decorated with grotesque paintings of hunting scenes. The houses of the European residents are for the most part to the east of the town. The old Residency, built by Colonel Wilks in the beginning of the present century, is now occupied by the Commissioner of the Ashtagrám Division. It has a handsome portico in the Doric style of architecture, and a room at the back, added by Sir John Malcolm, which is said to be the largest in Southern India. The building now used for the District offices was originally built by the Duke of Wellington (then Colonel Wellesley) for his own occupation.

History.—The site of the town, according to local tradition, was formerly occupied by the village of Puragere. In 1524, a fort was erected by one of the earliest of the Wodeyár line, and called Maheshur after the buffalo-headed monster slain by Chámundi or Kálí. This fort remained the capital of the Wodeyárs until they obtained possession of Seringapatam in 1610. Tipú Sultán, in furtherance of his design to obliterate all traces of the Hindu Ráj, razed the town to the ground, and began to build a fortress on a neighbouring hill, to which he gave the name of Násirábád. On his downfall in 1799, the present fort was rebuilt on the old site with the very stones that had been removed by Tipú. The late Mahárájá, who was then as an infant solemnly placed by the English on the fig-wood throne, continued to reside here until his death in 1868, and his profuse expenditure stimulated the trade of the town. Since the British occupation in 1831, BANGALORE has been the seat of administration.

Mysore.—*Táluk* in the centre of the District of the same name, Mysore State. Area, 394 square miles, of which 152 are cultivated; pop. (1871), 126,930, consisting of 111,391 Hindus, 14,171 Muhammadans, 1012 Christians, 319 Jains, and 37 Pársís. All the Pársís, and the great majority of Muhammadans, Christians, and Jains, are found in the town of Mysore. Land revenue (1874-75), exclusive of water rates, £8061, or 1s. 8½d. per cultivated acre. The country is watered by two small tributaries of the Kabbani. The principal natural feature is the Chámundi Hill, 3489 feet above sea level.

END OF VOLUME VI.

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